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ABSTRACT

This collection of 24 papers focuses on teacher education, literacy, and literature. Papers in the collection are: "Implementing Holistic Literacy Strategies in Chinese Teacher Preparation Programs" (R. L. Baker and M. H. Shaw-Baker); "I-Searching in Teacher Education" (A. Bartlett); "Strategies for Reducing Stress and Promoting Self-Esteem in Reading" (J. F. Bass and R. V. Bass); "School Based/University Assisted Teacher Induction Model" (S. Blair-Larsen and J. Bercik); "Assessment for Intervention of Second Grade At-Risk Students: An Inservice Project" (M. Brueggeman and J. Knickerbocker); "The Role of Action Research in Developing Reflective Preservice Teachers" (K. Carr and C. Mihalevich); "Modeling the Use of the GUIDE Framework in Secondary Integrated Reading Courses" (L. M. Clinard); "Teacher Change through Reading Recovery to Inservice" (T. S. Hansell and E. Traynelis-Yurek); "Into the 'Real World': Restructuring Teacher Education in Reading" (J. C. Richards and J. P. Gipe); "Authentic Assessment vs. Traditional Measurement: A Conflict in the Preparation of Preservice Teachers of Reading" (E. F. Searls and V. Mil Searls); "The Integrated Reading Curriculum: Creating a Student-Centered Environment in Preservice Methods Courses" (M. C. Sneed and K. Henn-Reinke); "A Summary of the Relative Efficacy of Computer-Assisted Reading Programs versus Traditional Instruction" (R. Thompson); "The Andis Integrated Instructional Strategies--Framework for Developing Thematic Units" (M. F. Andis); "What Do Literacy Teachers Need To Know about Language? What Do Literacy Teachers Need To Know about the Structures or Patterns of Language?" (M. Emmitt); "Deconstruction in an ESL Text: Rewriting 'Laura in Los Angeles'" (J. P. Konopak and B. C. Konopak); "Ensuring Successful Teaching: Resources and Practices in the Literacy Program" (K. Merritt); "Language Learning: Australian and United States Perspectives" (E. P. Ross); "One Week in Rio: A Descriptive Model for International Literacy Inservice" (M. P. French and M. A. Rybczynski); "Promises for World Understanding through International Children's Books" (I. A. Allen); "Global Education through Literature-Based Theme Units" (M. Henney); "Reading the Professional Literature: Guiding Education Students To Develop the Habit of Reading Professional Journals" (J. M. Jacobson); "Global Literature in the Integrated Curriculum: Opportunities in Teacher Education" (R. W. Joels); "Mythology" (M. A. Lach); and "Using Children's Books To Teach Global Values in Teacher Education" (M.S. Neil). (RS)

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Research Symposium
Teacher Education in Reading: Worldwide Issues

Chair: Rosie Webb Joels

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IMPLEMENTING HOLISTIC LITERACY STRATEGIES IN CHINESE TEACHER PREPARATION PROGRAMS

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Margaret H. Shaw-Baker
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INTRODUCTION:

During the summer of 1991, the authors were invited to teach a four semester hour English as a Second Language (ESL) workshop to thirty university teachers of English at Liaoning Normal University (LNU) in Dalian, China. Previous teaching experiences at LNU in 1987, 1988, 1989, and 1990 primarily had involved teaching undergraduates preparing to become secondary school ESL teachers in the Peoples' Republic of China (PRC).

Unlike previous classes taught, the thirty teachers enrolled in the 1991 language workshop taught English to undergraduates from each university subject discipline, ranging from biology and physics to Chinese history and physical education. Each undergraduate student was required to take four semester hours of a foreign language; over 90% of them were enrolled in English. Students in ESL classes used the same four required "textbooks" over four sequential semesters and were administered identical university, provincial, and ultimately, national tests.

In designing the four week workshop, the following Chinese ESL instructional characteristics were identified as educational / cultural constraints to address, namely that instruction was typically:

1. Teacher-centered. The teacher is the sole classroom authority and should not be questioned, interrupted, or challenged.
2. Textbook-centered. Textbooks embody both knowledge and truth.
3. Test-centered. Tests and exams are frequently designed to test the students' memorization of what is contained in books, often the discrete grammar points and vocabulary terms.
4. Skills-centered. English is an academic subject, an end in itself, ruled by grammatical structures.

Based on these constraints and previous teaching experiences in the PRC, the major objectives of the workshop sessions became:

1. To model a variety of holistic, integrated language strategies for ESL university instructors.
2. To model a variety of instructional models designed to enhance teacher-student and student-student interactions.
3. To collaborate in the classroom implementation of new language strategies in the workshop participants' ESL university classes.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND:

The theory underlying the specific instructional strategies presented to participants was introduced graphically and subsequently discussed and implemented during the course of the workshop.

Figure 1 represents the workshop emphasis on an integrated language model of learning and teaching English as a second language. Particular emphasis was placed on activating and developing the expressive speaking and writing abilities of ESL teachers and students.

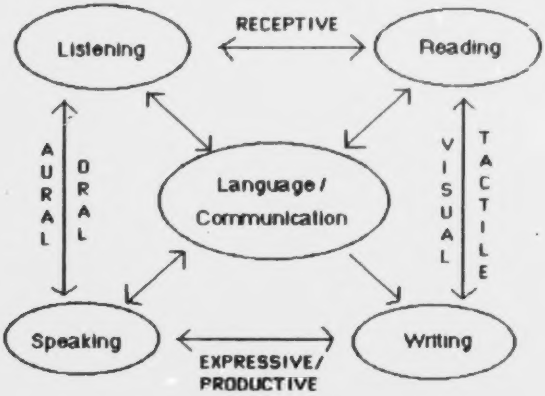
RECEPTIVE
Listening
Reading
AURAL
ORAL
Language / Communication
VISUAL
TACTILE
Speaking
Writing
EXPRESSIVE/ PRODUCTIVE

Figure 1. Integrated Language Model

Figure 2 represents the current view of reading and writing as constructive, interactive processes based on one's prior knowledge, background, and experiences (schema). Particular emphasis was placed on activating students' prior knowledge and eliciting student responses at the literal (text explicit), interpretive (text implicit), and applied (schema implicit) levels of comprehension.

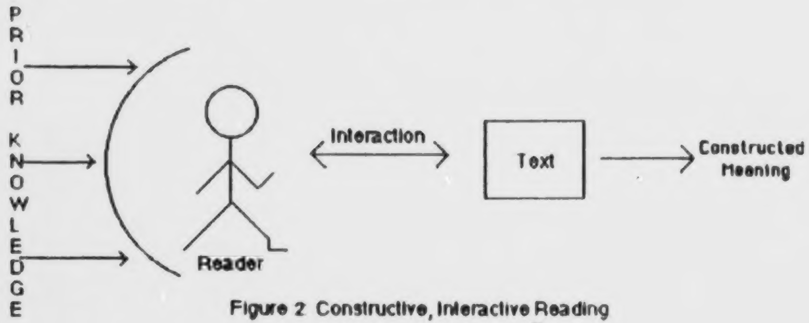
PRIOR KNOWLEDGE
Interaction
Text
Constructed Meaning
Reader

Figure 2 Constructive, Interactive Reading

LANGUAGE STRATEGIES:

A variety of holistic language strategies was implemented throughout the workshop, emphasizing the interrelatedness of reading, writing, listening, and speaking. Prior to each reading and writing activity, vocabulary overviews (semantic maps) were presented depicting major concepts and relationships to be developed. Each overview emphasized the need to activate participants' prior knowledge and experiences in order for them to construct their own meaning through both reading and writing. To facilitate the constructive, interactive language processes, a series of comparison - contrast lessons were developed focusing on Chinese - American differences and similarities related to culture, education, family life, communication, social values, vocations, neighborhoods, material possessions, etc.

A variety of instructional materials, including Chinese ESL materials, was used throughout the workshop. Recognizing the various constraints operating in participants' classrooms, the authors modeled story maps for narrative structures; chapter maps for expository structures; questioning strategies based upon text explicit, text implicit, and script implicit questions; guided reading strategies such as concept guides and Directed Reading/Thinking Activities (DRTA); comparison visuals such as the Venn diagram and T-comparison; Read-alouds; and Sustained Silent Reading.

The following unedited excerpts from participants' journal entries provide some substance and flavor to the methods and materials used during the workshop.

> "I think the story map is very useful in teaching. As long as I teach a narrative to my students, it will remind me of the map with setting, characters, theme and plot (Top down). Now the map is a kind of mental picture in my head -- my schema to organize all the information in it, which I can put in class to good use. And it will be easy for the students to understand the story in general. I classify setting, characters, and plot as text explicit, and theme as text implicit or schema implicit. The latter one (theme) is usually a problem for students to find in the story in which there can be several themes. Students have to use their schema, interact the story (sic), read different characters strategically and read the story holistically in order to construct the meaning, that is, to find the theme."-- Teacher 1

> "Today, Bob's conclusion of the idea map benefited me a lot. What we've learned for several days now can be summed up on only one page of a notebook by an Idea Map. What a wonderful thing it is!
>
> In fact, I've used some methods before, such as, main idea and supporting ideas, time-line and problem-solution. What I've taught the students can't leave a deep impression on them. That is because I've never written them on the blackboard, to say nothing of the idea map and diagrams. I only asked the questions orally and required them answer the

questions in the same way. Now I see the same methods but different effects.

I've decided to teach English by all the methods you've taught us, especially the Idea Map. I believe we'll achieve good results. Thank you for your help." -- Teacher 2

"DRTA, which stands for Directed Reading, Thinking Activity, interests me very much.

In class, in order to show how DRTA approach works, Dr. Shaw-Baker led us to put this approach into practice step by step. This approach consists of several steps, Firstly, readers are to survey the title, headnotes or pictures what so ever. Then make an intelligent guess of the contents of the article. It is called prediction. After that readers read the article to prove the predictions to see whether their predictions are right or not. In doing that, Dr. Shaw-Baker managed to select a suitable passage -- How to Teach Children to Behave -- which everybody is fond of. Since both the approach and the topic were interesting, so right after the predictions started, the glow of the lecture burst into flames. We tried to make as many predictions as possible. As a result it became a most active discussion than ever before.

I really enjoyed the lecture today. I think this new approach is not only useful in teaching students to read better, but also able to excite students into active talking."-- Teacher 3

CLASSROOM STRUCTURES:

Several different classroom learning structures -- team teaching, cooperative learning groups, peer coaching, peer editing, individual conferences, etc. -- were implemented on a daily basis to encourage the active participation of each workshop participant. Participants were organized into teams in spite of the traditional organization of the Chinese classroom: rows of desks and seats bolted to the floor. The following journal response represents a typical reaction to these "non-traditional" structures.

"Today we practiced the "idea map". It can include many things, such as the main idea, the sequence, the cause-effect, the comparison and so on. We've done the idea map in groups. Each group has five persons and each group has the same unit in Book IV. Then we can do any idea map. After this, we talked to each other in one's own group. This time we each had a different unit in Book IV. That is called "Jigsaw". This is a good way to practice the "idea map". Everyone of us is very active in class. After doing this, we can appreciate our own "idea map". My idea map is just like a beetle. It's very interesting.

Next term, I'm going to use this method in my teaching. I'll use the idea map to help my students understand the text. I'll let my students share the same pleasure with me. So that their reading comprehension level will be improved, I think."-- Teacher 4

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS:

Observations from this most recent ethnographic study of Chinese ESL instruction indicate the potential benefits of:

1. Activating prior knowledge and experiences prior to reading and writing through the use of comparative cultural activities.
2. Graphically depicting narrative and expository structures before, during, and after reading and writing activities.
3. Empowering ESL students as active language users.
4. Facilitating teacher-student and student-student verbal interactions through a variety of classroom structures.

Quantitative studies by LNU teachers presently are investigating the effects of vocabulary overviews (semantic maps) on ESL university students' reading comprehension and writing ability.

Whether or not these studies result in higher scores on the provincial and national exams remains to be seen. The parts of these learning experiences unable to be measured through quantitative data are the most rewarding for these authors. Our lives are as touched and changed as those with whom we collaborated. We conclude with a journal response to verify why our experiences were so gratifying:

> "The article 'How to Teach Children to Behave' really left a deep impression on me. Anyway, I don't want to say anything about my response to it as a mother, though I have a lot to say. What I want to express in today's journal is my feelings for the article you have written with your behavior in the weeks of teaching, and I think the title of the article can be 'How to Teach Students to Read and Write'. 'How to Behave as a Teacher in Front of Students'.
>
> Finally, I should say the more I attend your lectures, the more you make me think about everything covered in class. You open the thinking window for us. You are like the sunlight that shines into the window to make us see the whole world clearly. This is how I evaluate you two -- my dear teachers. I hope you will come to China as often as possible so that I can enjoy your lectures and learn more from you." -- Teacher 5

I-SEARCHING IN TEACHER EDUCATION

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In *The I-Search Paper,* Macrorie (1988) described how his wife "consumed" books while searching for information on the foreign countries they were considering for a sabbatical. How could teachers, he asked, allow students to experience this same enthusiastic quest for information? The I-Search paper was Macrorie's answer to this question.

The I-Search paper differs from traditional research projects in that students select their own topics. When used as an assignment in literacy education courses, the I-Search paper allows students to explore topics in greater depth than would be possible during class time. For example, students might choose topics such as multicultural literature, second language learners, or evaluation in the whole language classroom. Since topics are self-selected, students' motivation is high.

Impressed by the motivational aspects of the I-Search paper, I decided to use it as a framework for teaching my undergraduate literacy education students about the writing process. My purposes for using this framework were, first, to provide a model of the writing process which I hoped my students would emulate and, second, to guide students' explorations of topics that would help them to become better teachers (see Appendix for I-Search assignment).

Prewriting

University students have had surprisingly little experience selecting their own topics. When students learned they were to choose either a topic from the course or a closely-related topic, there were many blank stares. So, I began by sharing Bayer's (1990) recommendation: "Try to let the topic choose you from think/write logs or free writing; from walks; from conversations with friends; and from your reading, watching, and doing" (p. 57). To facilitate this process, students participated in four in-class prewriting activities.

The first activity, brainwriting, is a written form of brainstorming. Early in the semester, students wrote lists of topics they were considering for their I-Search papers. Next, they met with four or five other students who added related topics to each others' lists. Finally, students shared the most interesting topics to emerge from this process with the whole class. This initial experience with topic selection allowed students to compare their original areas of interest to the ideas of their peers.

The second activity, freewriting, took place during the following class. Macrorie (1988) gives the following suggestions for freewriting:

> For twelve minutes write as fast as you can whatever comes to mind. Don't worry about spelling, punctuation, or grammar, or what you think a teacher might want you to say. Write as fast as you can and still be legible. (p. 6)

From their brainwriting lists, students chose two or three topics to write about for five minutes each (Bayer, 1990). By trying out a few topics through freewriting, students were able to compare the potential of a restricted number of topics.

By the time of the third prewriting activity, which was library orientation, most students had one or two topics still under consideration. With guidance from the educational librarian and myself, students searched the on-line computer and CD-ROM for materials on those topics. During their searches, students learned about the resources that were available in their areas of interest. Furthermore, students learned how to use the ERIC database; a time-saving device for their present and future research.

For their fourth prewriting activity, students completed Plan-Think Sheets (Raphael & Englert, 1990) for their selected topics. On their Plan-Think Sheets, students wrote about their audiences and purposes for writing, brainstormed what they knew about their topics, and grouped their ideas.

Writing

Once students began writing, peer response groups provided support and guidance. In preparation for these writing groups, I modeled effective responses through Cramer's (1978) Editing Workshop. For this activity, students read a short piece of writing from the overhead. After reading, students shared what they liked about the piece and suggested changes. Throughout Editing Workshop, students were encouraged to start with positive comments and move toward constructive criticism.

Three weeks before their papers were due, students shared drafts of their papers in small groups. The peer response groups were based on Elbow's (1973) Teacherless Writing Groups, the benefits of which were described in *Writing Without Teachers.*

> There are two conditions that help you produce words easily. These two conditions are usually absent when you write but the teacherless class helps to produce them. The first condition is to know how people are reacting to your words. . . . There's another condition that makes it easy to produce language: *not worrying* how the audience experiences your words. (pp. 124-125)

Before their first writing group, students were told that their purpose was to provide honest reactions to the drafts. Groups were self-selected since sharing one's writing is difficult at first, even among friends. Two writing groups were held a week apart, and they differed only in how the papers were presented. For the first meeting, papers were read orally twice by the author. For the second meeting, authors provided written drafts for their group members to read silently. Oral reading has the benefit of allowing students to get "a better idea of the effect of (their) words on an audience" (Elbow, 1973, p. 82). However, "silent reading is quicker, you can stop and think, go back, read more carefully, and if it is a long piece of writing, people can take it home with them and read it there" (Elbow, 1973, p. 82). Since students would have to select between oral and silent reading in their own teaching, I wanted them to experience both approaches.

Sharing

When their I-Search papers were completed, students shared what they had learned through oral presentations. These five-minute presentations included: topic, major findings/conclusions, and time for questions (Bayer, 1990). Research was reported informally in a large circle so that students would feel comfortable sharing their findings.

There was interest in compiling a class book until the cost of the book was calculated. It was decided, instead, that students would provide copies of their papers to peers who requested them.

Students' Evaluations of the I-Search Assignment

In order to assess students' satisfaction with the I-Search paper as an assignment, I administered a questionnaire. Forty-three students in two sections of my elementary language arts methods course responded anonymously to this form.

On the questionnaire, students rated the I-Search paper as above average when compared to other papers they had written. The I-Search paper was rated highest on amount of learning (4.4 on a 5-point scale), interest of content (4.4), time spent (4.3), and helpfulness in future teaching (4.3). Eighty-one percent of the students responded that they would want to do this type of paper for another class.

In their comments, students stated that they appreciated the opportunity to select their own topics. The consensus was that self-selection of topics provided added motivation to learn. On the negative side, five of the 43 students complained that too much class time was spent on the I-Search paper. One student said that it was difficult to select a topic, and another student reported being "uncomfortable" sharing drafts. These negative comments will be addressed in future I-Search assignments.

Conclusions

The I-Search paper provided a useful framework for teaching the writing process. Students learned ways to help writers to select topics, find and organize information, and receive feedback as they completed a course assignment.

As an assignment for literacy education courses, the I-Search paper has four major benefits. First, students' motivation is high since they have selected topics of personal interest. Second, students learn about their peers' topics through small group sharing. Third, writing groups and related activities force students to begin their papers early and focus their attention on this project throughout the semester. A fourth, and unanticipated benefit, is that I-Search papers are on different topics and, therefore, more interesting for the course instructor to grade than traditional projects. Moreover, most of my students appreciated these benefits, with 81% reporting that they would be willing to write an I-Search paper for a future course.

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Appendix

I-Search Assignment

Select a topic that is covered in the course or a closely-related topic. Papers should include: why you selected your topic, what you learned from your research, the implications of this research for your teaching career, and references.

The following rubric will be used in grading the papers:

1. Tell why you think the topic is interesting and important. (20 points)
2. Provide more than one viewpoint on the issue. (20 points)
3. Provide reasoned arguments for your conclusions. (20 points)
4. Describe how you think your research will affect your teaching. (20 points)
5. Cite at least 5 references. (10 points)
6. Use effective organization, spelling and punctuation. (10 points)

Suggested length: 5-7 pages

To receive credit for the I Search paper, students will give 3-5 minute oral presentations which include: topic, major findings or conclusions and time for questions (Bayer, 1990). A further requirement is to participate in two writing response groups which will be held during class time.

Strategies for Reducing Stress and Promoting Self-Esteem in Reading

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Being able to read is a skill that is highly valued throughout the world. In American schools, students are generally expected to learn to read no later than first grade. Teachers and administrators make every attempt to see that children learn to read by this unwritten deadline imposed by society. However, the behavior and instructional practices of these well-meaning adults can cause those who have difficulty learning to read to experience undue stress as well as lowered self-esteem. As Beane (1991) indicated, "Every nook and cranny in the school has the potential to enhance or debilitate self-esteem" (p. 27). It is incumbent upon teacher educators to make our students aware of teacher actions and instructional techniques that have the potential to produce stress and lower self-esteem as students engage in reading activities. We must teach prospective teachers techniques that will make reading less stressful for students and will enhance self-esteem. The purpose of this paper is to review the stress-producing teacher behaviors and instructional practices outlined by Gentile and McMillan (1987) and to present positive alternative activities.

The first stress-producing practice presented by Gentile and McMillan (1987) is "requiring students to read aloud in front of other children" (p. 4). When students read orally in front of their peers, they are performing for an audience. As such, readers should be given the same opportunities to practice that actors are given. Although the physical symptoms of stress cannot be eliminated by practice, frustration and embarrassment can be lessened by allowing students to become familiar with the material they will be reading orally. Choral reading is one technique for providing practice with text. By reading a selection chorally first in a large group and then in small groups, readers' errors are not evident to the whole class.

A reading method that can be used as a practice activity is the Carbo Recorded Book Method (Carbo, Dunn, & Dunn, 1986). With this method, the teacher provides a good model for oral reading while teaching students to read words in context. When a tape is made using the recommended pacing, phrasing, expression, and amount of text, students should be able to read the material fluently after two or three read-along sessions.

Paired reading as described by Cunningham, Hall, & Defee (1991) provides practice when students prefer working with one other student. Student A reads aloud while Student B follows Student A's reading of a section of text. Roles are then reversed for reading the next section of text. Students continue to alternate the roles of student and teacher until the text is covered.

Another strategy for providing practice before students read aloud in front of peers is perfection reading (Cunningham, Moore, Cunningham, & Moore, 1989). In this technique, students silently read passages on their instructional level and then read them orally while partners record errors. This silent reading followed by oral reading continues for three or four rereadings with students trying to make fewer errors each time.

According to Gentile and McMillan (1987), requiring students to "act out parts of stories or plays that require reading difficult lines or passages in front of their peers" (p. 4) is another stressful practice. Not all books are suitable for reading aloud. Therefore, the teacher should preread material and require students to read orally only those passages that are easy to read and will hold listeners' attention. Because not all students are comfortable acting out parts of stories or plays, letting volunteers perform the parts would be a better practice than requiring all students to participate.

The third stressful situation mentioned by Gentile and McMillan (1987) is "requiring students to read from books or materials that are either too long or too hard for them and then having them reread when this serves no constructive purpose" (p.4). The teacher can choose methods that will break long passages into small sections. A story can be divided into sections at suspenseful points by using a method called Reciprocal

Teaching (Leu & Kinzer, 1991). Students read a section of the text, summarize the main points, clarify meanings, formulate a question related to the main points, and predict what will happen next. Teachers can avoid placing students in a book that is too hard by checking students' word recognition and comprehension of a short passage from the book. Language experience stories and predictable books provide interesting reading material for students who encounter difficulty with basal readers. Further, students can be involved in purposeful rereading of these materials by following a lesson sequence such as the one suggested by Mallon and Berglund (1984).

"Requiring students to read aloud from material that is obviously more appropriate for younger children" is the fourth threatening practice listed by Gentile and McMillan (1987, p.4). With the wealth of children's literature that is available today, teachers should be able to find reading material that is on the readers' developmental levels. If students choose to read an old favorite that is more appropriate for younger children, they could be given the option of reading the material aloud to younger children or reading the material silently for their own pleasure.

Gentile and McMillan (1987) indicate that "requiring students to stop reading because they have made too many errors or appear lost or confused" (p. 4) is a stressor in reading. They also point out that teachers often ask other students to "help" the student who experienced difficulty. If teachers provide opportunities for students to practice before reading orally and if teachers place students in materials that are not too difficult, students should not make excessive errors. If a student begins making errors while reading orally, let the student finish reading, rather than stopping him/her. The teacher might suggest finishing the selection as a choral reading. The whole class, a small group, or one student could join the reader so he/she would be able to finish reading without further embarrassment. If students lose their places, they might need to use markers or glide their fingers under the lines of print in order to finish reading without losing face before their peers. Asking other students to "help" the one encountering difficulty in reading sends the message that the "helpers" are superior to the one having difficulty. The teacher could establish the rule that only the teacher is to correct oral reading errors and assist students in locating the place in the book. If students persist in the one-up-manship, the teacher might modify the technique called Radio Reading (Vacca & Vacca, 1989). In Radio Reading, small groups are assigned sections to be read in their groups. Group members decide the parts to be read, rehearse the reading, and formulate questions. Each reader takes a turn reading orally while the others have their books closed. The reading of a section is followed by the reader asking group members questions about the material that was read. By having their books closed, students are not able to correct oral reading errors and appear smarter than the reader.

A teacher behavior that produces stress is requiring students to read and then "mimicking or commenting upon the quality of the student's reading or behavior" (Gentile & McMillan, 1987, p. 4). Evaluations of students' reading performance should be conducted on a one-to-one basis. Conferences modeled after the student-teacher conferences of Individualized Reading (Breen, 1988) should provide the student with sufficient feedback. If students have persistent problems with pacing or expression while reading orally, provide good models of oral reading for the students. The teacher and older students who read well orally could give live or taped readings. In some cases, students might benefit from recording their reading, listening to it, and conducting a self-evaluation.

Another instructional practice that is a source of stress in reading is "requiring students to do the same kind of reading day after day from basal readers and to complete innumerable workbook activities in order to overcome skills deficits" (Gentile & McMillan, 1987, p. 4). To break the routine of basals and worksheets, Jones and Nessel (1985) suggest integrating language experience stories with the basal. Another suggestion would be to have literature response groups meet two or three days a week to read good literature, record and share their reflections in literature logs, and participate in follow-up activities (Burns, Roe, & Ross, 1992). Thematic units lasting one or two weeks could alternate with basal reader lessons to provide variety. A children's literature book, an author or illustrator, a literary genre, or a topic from a content area could be selected for a unit theme (Bass & Henfling, 1992). Activities could then be developed to integrate the language arts and content areas.

The final source of stress in reading enumerated by Gentile and McMillan (1987) is "requiring students to read material that parallels specific traumatic conditions in their lives" (p. 4). Although some students might benefit from reading literature that is related to a problem they are facing, others could become more upset by this practice. Rather than requiring students to read such books, a teacher could introduce selected books and then let students choose the ones they want to read. The teacher should accept the students' decisions, even if they do not choose to read the related books (Leu & Kinzer, 1991).

Every day the reading teacher makes instructional decisions that affect the way students view reading and the way they view themselves as readers. When students are humiliated, embarrassed, and made to feel inferior in front of their peers while reading, they are likely to see themselves as losers when it comes to reading. They will, in turn, react negatively to reading. By thoughtfully considering how students might feel in given situations, teachers can avoid making comments and utilizing instructional techniques that have the potential to produce stress and damage self-esteem.

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School Based/University Assisted Teacher Induction Model

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Educational researchers have referred to the period of transition for beginning teachers as a period of induction. The induction of new teachers into the profession has been a topic of discussion for many years; yet has only recently begun to be the topic of several educational journals and agencies (Brooks, 1987). A review of the literature identifies contributions from teacher educators, first year teachers, school administrators, and experienced teachers. These authors offer advice, recollections, personal opinion, and descriptions of induction programs by means of surveys, experimental studies, qualitative research, and program evaluation. Even with these available resources, there is little understanding of why beginning teachers have the experiences they do. New teachers continue to become discouraged in their chosen careers, and an average of 15% leave after their first year, with another 6% leaving after their second year (Schlecty & Vance, 1983). Although there are no significant statistics available, it is likely that the attrition rate for first and second year urban teachers is much higher. Induction programs are one way in which school districts including those in urban areas can assist beginning teachers to effectively make the transition to career teachers.

Results from a case study suggest that the development of a broad-based support system is an essential component for a teacher induction program for new and returning teachers in urban parochial schools (Bercik & Blair, 1989). According to the results, a successful teacher induction program model should be reactive to the teachers' needs and reflective of positive educational strategies. Because the present study involves a similar population, these recommendations were considered.

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to ascertain the needs of beginning teachers in an urban parochial school district while implementing a year-long teacher induction program that would provide new and returning teachers with an outside, impartial agency. Funds were obtained from a University Faculty Grant for materials and project development.

One goal of teacher induction is to offer instructional and interpersonal support, thus fostering both professional development and retention as a teacher. To pursue this goal, the emphasis during the implementation phase was on the local level. Because this program was an extension of a case study (Bercik & Blair, 1989), the number of schools, teachers, and materials was expanded in the urban parochial school district. With this larger number of active participants, three objectives were identified:

1. To provide new, first year, and returning teachers with classroom organization and management techniques.
2. To encourage new, first year, and returning teachers to develop a support system for themselves.
3. To provide ongoing insight in the area of classroom discipline.

Implementation

The program was implemented in four inner city parochial schools in the Archdiocese of Chicago. At OLL, five teachers began the program, including three in their second year of the program. At OLS, a total of five teachers participated including two in their second year of the program and two aides. Two schools were new to the program: SM with six teachers and STA with four teachers. The initial number of participants totaled twenty teachers and two aides. Five of this number were beginning their second year in the program. The aides asked to be included in the project. Active teacher participation throughout the program was exceptional with the addition of at least one of the principals attending all seminars.

Program Model

The initial meeting which set the tone for the remainder of the program was held in August and involved all teachers and administrators. Its purpose was two fold: first, to acquaint the new, first year, and returning teachers with their coworkers and the members of each participating school in order to create additional support systems; and second, to involve the participants in the immediate needs of new teachers. Additionally, all participants were provided with a notebook that would become their resource guide for materials, sharing, and concerns throughout the year.

The researcher/facilitator defined her roles as a resource person, an outside mentor, not as an evaluator. This aspect proved to be important as the year progressed, because as Frances Fuller (1969) contended, channels of communication are necessary if teachers are to overcome the fantasy stage.

Prior to each meeting a reminder was sent to the teachers relative to the meeting location, time, and topic for discussion. In this manner, teachers were able to bring their concerns about the topic and to keep its purpose in mind throughout the discussion.

A follow-up memo was sent after each meeting to clarify thoughts, to list results of the group discussion, to provide ongoing feedback to the participants, and to make additional suggestions.

Two weeks into the school year, the second session was held with the teachers introducing themselves and naming their primary concerns. Discussion centered on classroom management because it had been chosen both by the teachers and the researcher/facilitator.

Because most of the schools had parent conferences in November, the third session centered on key areas relative to this topic. Discussion involved research about parent conferences, parent profiles, teacher expectations, parent expectations, and keys to effective communication.

The fourth session was an open agenda allowing teachers to share their thoughts and vent their frustrations. One suggestion the teachers adopted was a chart on which they mapped the days, times, and students exhibiting erratic behavior. Using this observation tool, the teachers were able to clearly distinguish the strengths and weaknesses of their management system, to alleviate some problems, and to employ a system of reflection about their classrooms.

According to Ryan (1990), midway through their first year, beginning teachers pass from the survival stage into an apprenticeship process, and it was during this period that classroom observations began. For a four month period, the researcher/facilitator observed each teacher and immediately following the observation provided written feedback to both the teacher and the principal. The teacher used these comments as a springboard for improvement and the principal used them as a means to positive reinforcement only, not evaluation.

Each observational report was divided into two areas. The first centered on classroom atmosphere, room arrangement, class grouping, classroom control, bulletin boards, assignments, teacher/student rapport, and instructional focus. The second included suggestions on correct testing procedures, classroom charts, lesson plans, student practice sheets, demonstration materials, room decoration, and consistent reinforcement of teacher direction.

Evaluations

Final interviews with individual participants were conducted at the conclusion of the year. These sessions were valuable because they gave insight into needs, concerns, and successes over the past year. Close examination of the questionnaire responses identifies specific similarities and differences between the majority of first year teachers and second year teachers.

The first year teachers described their most rewarding aspects in terms of their students' progress and growth, along with trust and acceptance. Those in the second year of the program discussed their own growth in terms of success, self-direction, and vocation clarification.

Frustrating aspects for the first year teachers centered on discipline, pacing, flexibility, and organization. Those in their second year still mentioned discipline, but added the areas of parent demands and expectations. As experience is gained, there appears to be more specific teacher concerns.

All participants agreed that their prior experiences were important and worthwhile, stressing that during preservice preparation, quality school sites are a requisite.

The teachers responded positively that their methods courses were helpful especially reading/language arts and special education but found actual experiences to be their best teacher. The teachers seemed to gain perspective, for one second year teacher summed up their responses by saying "They (courses) gave in their own way and I had to draw from them."

When asked how their college program could have better prepared them, the first year teachers recommended discussion on management and learning styles, teaching techniques, organizational needs (planning, pacing, paperwork), more methods courses, and field experiences. The second year teachers were pleased but requested more field experiences and qualitative information on school law.

In responding to the question about any help they received from their principals, the first year teachers centered on problem situation support and idea sharing; whereas the second year teachers responded with the understanding and positive reinforcement aspects. In fact, one experienced teacher stated, "This is the year I sought her out."

Both groups felt that they were given support, had good advice, and received great ideas from their coworkers. They viewed the researcher/facilitator as a resource and support person. The first year teachers accepted her as a curriculum planner and found the monthly meetings important, while the second year teachers valued the visits, and liked the idea of having a sounding board and safety net.

Additional questions dealt with ways to better assist the teachers. The first year teachers identified these needs: more principal support and observation, parent guidelines, and consistent school policies. The second year teachers appeared more content with their assistance, addressing only a need for smaller class size and continuous follow-through.

In discussing support from the staff, the first year teachers suggested more aides, availability of mentors and secretarial assistance. The second year teachers felt that communication was improving over the year.

Both the first and second year teachers agreed that the researcher/facilitator's role should include more visits and personal attention. Although meetings were held once a month and individual visits were conducted, teachers in both groups needed more support. Several stated that they realized too late that they should have made contact earlier.

The final question dealt with what could they suggest in the way of help for the future. The first teachers were as varied as their number and stated the following: genuine welcome, positive feedback and workshops, supportive principal, more visits by principal and researcher/facilitator, and consistency. The second year teachers were succinct: friendly staff, clear school policy, and more guidance.

Conclusions

After analyzing the teacher responses, the researcher/facilitator regards the achievement of the three stated objectives as essential to the conclusion.

By providing teachers with a variety of classroom organization and management techniques throughout the year, the first objective was achieved. The first year teachers had a tendency to change techniques too rapidly causing them frustration, while the second year teachers discussed specific behavioral problems.

The second objective, to encourage new and first year teachers to develop a support system for themselves, proved to be successful. The monthly meeting provided the teachers with a forum to express themselves and to find out what others were thinking and experiencing. The result of the survey and dialogue point to the importance of their support system. The teachers in both groups indicated the benefits they received via monthly meetings, staff contact, and visits. The teachers identified this support with these comments, "Gee, it's good to know that I'm not the only one having these problems." and "Last year I experienced the same thing, this is what I did." They felt free to share with one another and offer suggestions because they found problems in their schools to be similar.

The third objective, to provide insight in the area of classroom discipline, was the most difficult to control. Although the teachers received a variety of strategies, they often relented to their frustrations. This issue was visible with both groups' survey responses.

As closer examination revealed, the teachers placed the discipline issue with the principal and the parents. They wanted more principal support and follow-through with parents.

Implications

To formulate a teacher induction program for new, first year, and returning teachers in an urban district, there are a number of suggestions to be considered.

First, a session at the beginning of the school year centering on classroom discipline and management techniques is important to the new, first year, and returning teachers as well as to second year teachers because it acts as a reinforcement and solidifies the foundations they are building.

Second, regularly scheduled meetings throughout the school year should be held to discuss relevant issues as well as provide long term moral support. New teachers need continuous encouragement and positive reinforcement of their performance in the classroom. The idea that they should take charge and seek out information should be stressed. "It's OK not to be OK."

Third, classroom discipline is a continuous issue whether one is in the first, second, or twentieth year of teaching. Teachers need to understand and share with novices that each year may be different, but they need to remain consistent, flexible, and willing to discuss their problems. Only when problems are discussed can they be resolved.

Fourth, classroom visits should continue throughout the school year. The program facilitator should be viewed as a resource person for suggestions and comments rather than an evaluator. This is evidenced through the positive responses to the final questionnaire Teachers need an impartial person serving as a sounding board or a safety net.

A final comment from a second year teacher summarizes the benefits of her participation in the teacher induction program. "I am willing to express myself with other professionals and am able to accept suggestions. I know I'm an OK teacher, and next year I will be an even better one!"

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ASSESSMENT FOR INTERVENTION
OF SECOND GRADE AT-RISK STUDENTS:
AN INSERVICE PROJECT

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An Overview of the Third Grade Guarantee Project

External Objectives

The Ohio Department of Education initiated a "Third Year Guarantee" project which was to ensure that by the end of the second grade each pupil was to be evaluated against a checklist of reading and writing competencies developed by the Ohio Department of Education. Districts obtaining the grant were to provide intervention programs for students who did not perform successfully against the checklist.

Stark County Local School System was awarded such a grant which included the following performance objectives:

(1) The development of assessment techniques appropriate to the checklist.
(2) The creation, selection, purchase and implementation of developmentally appropriate intervention materials for students
(3) The compilation of the assessment techniques and intervention materials to result in the development of a Holistic Assessment/ Intervention Guide
(4) Staff development to encompass a weeklong summer workshop and seven full day sessions throughout the school year.
(5) The organization and implementation of a summer language experience program for 240 at-risk students
(6) Parent workshops

Additional long term goals presented in the grant were:

(1) General awareness by teachers that curriculum must be developmentally appropriate and holistic
(2) Greater knowledge and comfort with observation and assessment
(3) Greater knowledge by both parents and teachers as to how children acquire language skills as a result of developmentally appropriate practices
(4) Greater communication between teachers and parents thereby creating a genuine home/school partnership

These external objectives were designed by Stark County administrators in collaboration with Ashland University professors Marti Brueggeman and Joan Knickerbocker. The University faculty Brueggeman and Knickerbocker chose the following internal objectives and models to realize the external objectives.

Internal Objectives

The Gradual Release of Responsibility Model of Instruction and Assessment

The Gradual Release of Responsibility Model of Instruction (Pearson & Gallagher, 1983) was presented as the overriding approach for implementing the skills listed on the Third Grade Guarantee checklist. This model centers around the transfer of control of the reading process from the teacher to the student. The stages of the model include modelling, guided practice (throughout which the gradual release of responsibility occurs, and application at an independent level.

A lesson developed according to this model would include the selection of a strategy, a mental process to accomplish the target skill. During the modeling stage the teacher demonstrates and verbalizes the thinking involved in the strategy and the purpose of the strategy. Students will engage in the strategy with material at the independent level. During the guided practice stage the same strategy will be used to guide student thinking. Various scaffolds or support mechanisms are provided. As the student demonstrates increasing competency with the strategy, the teacher determines the student's ability to apply the strategy independently. At the independent stage the student will apply the strategy successfully with new materials.

Within this model assessment is authentic, ongoing, continuous, and multifacted. The same strategies used for instruction are used for assessment. A portfolio approach would be a desired goal.

Generic Lesson Plan and Strategy Guides

The following Third Grade Guarantee Lesson Plan instructions were developed to assist teachers in developing lessons that reflected the gradual release of responsibility model.

Third Grade Guarantee Lesson Plan Guide

Skill

The outcome matched to the 3rd grade checklist

Strategy

The mental process used to accomplis the skill
Often the process is made visual
Needs to provide the thinking involved
Is not the end project--just a tool--if one tool does not work with an individual other tools may be necessary!

Materials

Minimum of three different selections for all three phases of lesson(s)
Selections for both guided and independent practice need to be on the grade level children can read

Model

Teacher demonstrates the thinking involved in the strategy and states purpose of this strategy use (story frame--helps to understand the story as a whole)

Most important that explanation of thought is very clearly demonstrated

What is modeled must parallel the thinking needed for guided and independent practice.

Modeling Characteristics

--Teacher reads while students listen
--Use of story already familiar
--Students read story on their independent level
--Whole class or target group/individual receives the instruction
--Instruction is direct - the thinking process is the focus of instruction - any visual is a representation of thinking - a way of capturing or freezing of thought
--Teacher verbalizes her thinking
--Use only the very best text

Guided Practice

The target skill is the outcome of the practice
The strategy used in modeling should be used in guided practice
Materials must be read by students and not just a repeat of the same selection as in the modeling process

Purpose is use of the strategy to accomplish skill, not the selection material itself
Process of Thinking is focus
Student must be able to verbalize how strategy works with the selection and why the strategy is used.

Guided Practice Characteristics

--Strategy is partially completed by teacher
--Students work in groups/with partner
--Gradual Release of Responsibility means student becomes able to use the strategy appropriately with declining support
--Scaffolds - adjustments are made as necessary to provide support
--Use of series books (characters and often setting remain constant)
--Strategy may need to be more concrete illustrations and words, think big, manipulation, verify in text versus relying on memory
--Change group/partner/more modeling needed
--Use of strategy for outcome must be assessed at this stage of lesson(s)
--Can student verbalize?
--If one strategy isn't working should another strategy be used?

Assessment at this point determines if it is feasible to go forward and complete an independent evaluation with new text or if more scaffolds are needed to be provided or if the teacher needs to provide more direct modeling of thinking involved.

Independent

Student reads new material and applies strategy without assistance of teacher and/or classmates.

Assessment at this point determines if the student is able to use the strategy appropriately alone. If the student is not successful, more guided practice (consider a change from former guided practice)

Example of Strategy Specific Guide

The following is an example of a strategy overview designed to be used within the Gradual Release Model:

Reading Web

Purpose: Demonstrate an understanding of text by locating specific parts of text, talks about characters, describes setting, retells, uses pictures (own) to support the meaning of the story. (See sample of visual array of reading web on page eight.)

Procedure:

1. Choose a story with a strong problem and solution
2. Read story
3. Discuss story elements of character, setting, problem, solution
4. Draw/write the elements of #3 in reading web form.

Scaffolds:

1. Use large chart paper and give each student or group one section of the web
2. Provide predrawn scenes for student to select
3. Use series, variations, same genre
4. Pass out events (strips) and class arranges story sequence. Students determine problem/solution from strips.

The Clinical Supervision Model

In order to facilitate ownership of new approaches and to provide a support system for professional development, teachers were asked to engage in peer supervision. Once a month each teacher was to observe her teacher partner implement various strategies and then to critique the lesson. the clinical supervision model (Goldhammer, 1960) consisting of a preobservation conference, peer observation and post observation conference was selected to provide structure. Teachers were paired, if possible, with a teacher in the same building or school system. During the preobservation conference the instructional plan was to be discussed especially the relationship of the skill, strategy, materials and stage of the instructional model. The length of the observation was determined by practical consideration. The post observation conference provided a time for the teachers to share ideas regarding the lesson observed. Throughout the year teachers were asked to keep professional journals to chronicle their experiences.

As the peer coaching model and the concept of designing lessons based on the gradual release model were novel skills for the teachers, it was necessary to formulate the following guide.

OBSERVATION GUIDE

Teacher ______________________ Observer ____________

Teaching Situation: Date:

PREOBSERVATION CONFERENCE

i. Planning

	Modeling	Guided Practice	Independence
A. Selecting skill			
B. Selecting strategy			
C. Selecting materials			
D. Devising and sequencing learning activities			
E. Selecting appropriate assessment			

OBSERVATION

II. Teaching

	Modeling	Guided Practice	Independence
A. Clear to students			
B. Appeal to students			
C. Involvement of students			
D. Adapting teaching to students' responses			
E. Use of materials and media			
F. Provision of opportunity for additional practice			
G. Classroom and student management			

III. Assessment procedures

A. Type of assessment
B. Criteria
C. Direct relationship to skill and strategy

POST OBSERVATION CONFERENCE

Teacher Reflections

The personal journals that the teachers kept were to reflect their thoughts on the inservice sessions, the peer coaching, and classroom applications of strategies. New strategies and books were well received, but moving through the gradual release model toward individual assessment was a difficult project. Once teachers came to realize their own ability to move beyond a manual, they were empowered.

One teacher reflects: "Tomorrow is out last class, I learned a lot. Will never regret all the time put into this. There were times I could have cried/screamed/

quit??!! But over all it was definitely worth it." Another teacher writes, "My teaching this year has moved beyond basal readers to a more literature based approach. Although I'm not completely comfortable yet in this approach, I know that I will keep learning and develop new procedures and strategies. These are my goals for the coming years along with emphasizing writing and integrating it into the reading process. By observing what the children could accomplish I became convinced that using a literature approach was the most meaningful way to teach. The children became confident readers and discovered how enjoyable reading can be."

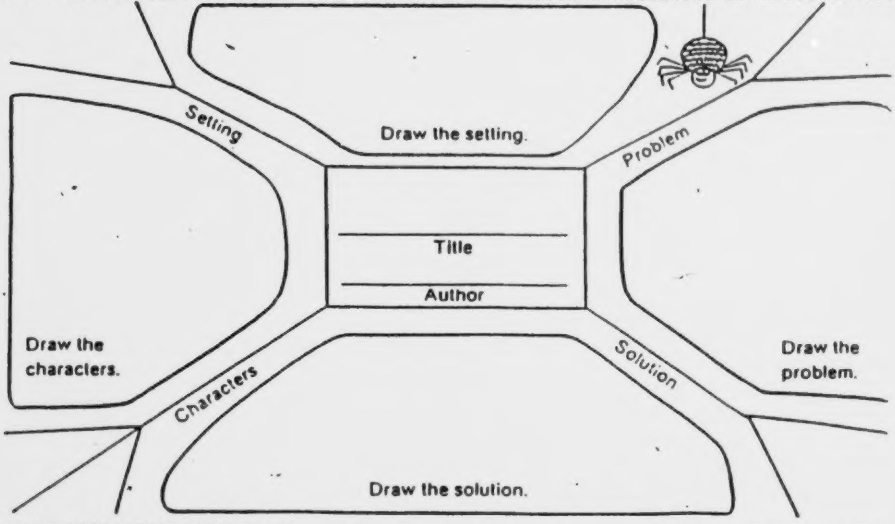
Professor Reflections

This project produced several challenges. For example, the original writers of the grant were no longer employed by the system at the start of the project. None of the supervisory personnel had a sense of ownership of the project. The onsite supervisor was not adequately knowledgeable of the strategies, model, and materials to provide the teachers with appropriate constructive criticism. The state checklist was imprecise and open to interpretation. There was an inherent danger that the checklist would be reduced to a subskill orientation. Most of the participants did not want to take risks and were very selective in the strategy areas they wanted to work.

In spite of it all, the project was a success. The teachers would not longer be able to teach reading as they did in the past without some reflection on the approach. They analyzed how children think and learn and they came to view assessment differently. Even the university professors learned new ideas from each other as well as from the teachers and other professionals.

Name ______________________

Reading Web


Setting
Draw the setting.
Problem
Title
Author
Draw the characters.
Characters
Solution
Draw the problem.
Draw the solution.

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THE ROLE OF ACTION RESEARCH IN DEVELOPING REFLECTIVE PRESERVICE TEACHERS

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The teacher-as-researcher movement is, at least in the literature, in full bloom. The purposes of action research are well documented, *i.e.*, to foster teachers' reflective thinking and inquiry into their own teaching practices, and ultimately, to effect change in the classroom (Glesne, 1991). However, as Glesne noted, "many teachers have never learned to develop hypotheses or questions through reflection on their own practice, nor how to collect, analyze and present data to an audience" (p. 7).

It seems logical that the place to begin developing attitudes and skills of inquiry is in the education of preservice teachers. However, emphasis on reflective thinking and action research marks a major shift in philosophy in teacher education from that of the 1980s. According to Tama and Peterson (1991), the goal of reflective thinking in teacher education is to move students beyond a level of technical proficiency to a broader perspective of teaching as creative problem solving.

In the fall term 1990, the elementary teacher education faculty at a medium-sized regional university, recognizing the importance of observation and reflective decision making in the preservice experience, developed an action research component to be completed during the student teaching semester. The authors then conducted a small study to assess the effect of action research upon preservice students' perceptions of the roles of the teacher in three categories: Management, Social or Nurturing, and Cognitive or Problem solving roles.

Action Research Definition

Classroom research may be defined as inquiry conducted by teachers in a systematic way (Carr and Williams, 1991). Students received instruction pertaining to the four basic steps in this type of research, described by Sheldon and Allain (1987) as, Reconnaissance, Planning, Acting, and Reflecting .

Reconnaissance. In the Reconnaissance stage the teacher identifies an observable and measurable problem and conducts a review of the literature on that issue. The problem might be something pertaining to an entire class or a small group, or it might involve only one student — some classroom situation, question or problem. For example, is there something that needs improvement or a new skill or method to try? (Carr and Williams, 1991).

Observation. Some teachers find it helpful to keep a journal of observations. The process of writing about their classes and their teaching experiences helps to pinpoint needs. Others find discussion with colleagues beneficial. At any rate, identifying and clearly defining the problem or goal on paper is an important first step in action research.

Review of the Literature. The next step is to do some reading in professional journals to see how other teachers have approached this problem and what authorities in the field have written. Reading and summarizing journal articles on recent research and current practices related to the issue establishes both a knowledge base and a theoretical point of reference (Carr and Williams, 1991).

Planning. In the Planning stage the teacher-researcher forms a hypothesis and designs the study. The hypothesis is a question that asks, What am I going to change and what will be the results of that change? (Allain, 1990). The design of the study describes activities that will be conducted, how they will be monitored, and the data collection process (Sheldon and Allain, 1987).

Acting. The third stage involves the actual implementation of the plan and systematic data collection. Observational techniques, teacher-made tests, formal standardized tests or a combination are useful measurements of academic achievement.

Observational techniques or "Kid Watching" (Goodman 1978) are widely endorsed forms of measuring behaviors. Observations are brief notes focused on a specific behavior (as defined in the Planning stage). The key to observation is to keep a systematic or running record (Clay 1982), with each entry dated. Observational techniques, along with rating scales and checklists, are part of naturalistic assessment, and, according to Gronlund (1990), provide a reasonably accurate assessment of student behaviors.

Reflecting. The final step in classroom research is Reflection. At the conclusion of the study, perhaps several weeks later, the teacher-researcher reflects on the process, analyzes the data, and interprets the results. According to an International Reading Association Subcommittee (1989):

> Sophisticated statistical analysis is not necessary to see if you are getting the results you want. Often averaging test scores for comparison is all the information necessary for accepting ownership of the experimental study. When analyzing results, (the researcher should) be sure to consider other factors that influence the outcome, such as absences, inappropriate tests, social factors, and distractions (p. 217).

The Reflection stage may include such questions as, What do the observations say about student learning or attitudes using the new procedure? What patterns or trends are evident from the data? Did the change result in improvement in student learning or behavior? What are the implications for future classes? (Carr and Williams, 1991).

Methodology

Eight preservice teachers majoring in elementary education at a medium-sized regional university were included in the study. Participation was determined through enrollment in one of two student teaching blocks. Students had the option to enroll in a ten week student teaching block or a fourteen week student teaching block. Those enrolled in the ten week block were placed in the control group which completed a traditional student teaching semester. Students enrolled in the fourteen week block completed a traditional student teaching block and were required to complete an action research project in conjunction with student teaching. Matched pairs of students were selected on the basis of age, cumulative grade point average, elected minor, and years at the institution. Although there were approximately 100 students in the action research project, the pool of without-action research students was limited with the result that only eight subjects met the criteria for matched pairs.

With the guidance of a university instructor, students enrolled in the action research block followed the steps described by Sheldon and Allain (1987) to conduct an informal study, and reflect upon the results in a formal paper during the student teaching semester. The control group participated in a ten week student teaching block without action research. At the end of the student teaching semester, each student completed a focused free write responding to the question "What do you perceive to be the role(s) of the teacher?"

Student free writes were read blind by two graduate students. Student reponses were listed, coded, and categorized with interrater reliability of .93. Responses fell into three categories: Management, or roles necessary to manage classroom instruction, Social, or roles involving social issues or nurturing, and Cognitive, defined as teacher roles involving inquiry, problem solving, reflection, or cognitive enhancement. Typical student responses for each category are as follows: Management role responses were "bookkeeper", babysitter", "secretary", and "data entry clerk"; student Social role responses were "mother", "counselor", "motivator", and "advisor"; and student Cognitive role responses were "detective", "impart knowledge", "problem-solver", and "decision-maker".

Data analysis was completed on the four matched pairs of student role responses. Each students role responses were categorized and a percentage was calculated for the number of student responses that fell into each category per student. Mean category percentages were computed for both the Action Research group and the No Action Research group for comparisons. Individual student role response category percentages and group mean role response category percentages are reported in Table 2.

Table 2

Elementary Preservice Teachers Beliefs on the Roles of the Classroom Teacher

		Student Role Response Category Percentages		
Group		Management	Social	Cognitive
No Action Research (N = 4)				
	S1	50	20	30
	S2	0	60	40
	S3	33	66	0
	S4	17	66	17
		$\bar{X} = 25$	$\bar{X} = 53$	$\bar{X} = 22$
Action Research (N = 4)				
	S1	25	25	50
	S2	46	38	15
	S3	0	50	50
	S4	44	33	22
		$\bar{X} = 29$	$\bar{X} = 37$	$\bar{X} = 34$

Discussion

The analysis of preservice teachers' responses concerning the role(s) of the teacher suggests the following two points:

1.) Preservice teachers' completion of an action research project during student teaching appeared to increase the awareness of the cognitive roles, or reflective decision-making in teaching.

2.) In general, preservice teachers' perception of the teacher's role focused mainly on management and social roles rather than cognitive roles.

The emphasis on the role of the teacher as a reflective, instructional decision-maker has evolved since the mid-80's to the present (Simmons, 1981). As a result of this emphasis, teacher education preparatory programs have focused on the development of reflection in preservice teachers. Action research might be one way to introduce preservice teachers to the importance of inquiry in the role of the classroom teacher. However, the relationship between a teacher's belief system and classroom practice has been posited as an important factor in changing behavior (Richardson, Anders, Lloyd, & Tidwell, 1991). Therefore, if preservice teachers do not believe in the importance of the role of inquiry in teaching, increasing reflective decision-making may be difficult.

The results indicate that preservice teachers believe that teaching consists mainly of management and social roles. It is evident that to increase teacher participation in the role of reflective decision-making, not just in the role managing and social directing in the classroom, teacher education programs need to be designed to increase awareness of the role of inquiry and reflective decision-making in teaching. This study supports implementation of action research during the student teaching semester to broaden student awareness of cognitive roles in the classroom. Further research using larger sample sizes is recommended in order to substantiate the effectiveness of action research in that endeavor.

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Modeling the Use of the GUIDE Framework in Secondary Integrated Reading Courses

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Since September, 1989, I have taught the Secondary Reading Theory and Secondary Reading Lab Field Experience concurrent courses in the Department of Education at the University of California, Irvine. One of my primary goals is to model for teachers-in-training a decision-making process which integrates Literacy strategies that address the needs of students in multicultural secondary classrooms.

Research strongly supports the integration of the Literacy skills of Listening, Speaking, Thinking, Reading, and Writing in every secondary classroom. My twenty some year of experience as a Reading Teacher, as well as research I have completed and other data I have collected, confirm the effectiveness of modeling the decision-making process necessary for integrating Literacy-related strategies at all ages levels.

A Two-Dimensional Model for Teacher Education

The Secondary Reading and Reading Field Experience courses are based upon a two-dimensional model of instruction which I first used in my Teacher Education courses at Michigan State University (1975-1987), The University of Michigan (1988), and now at the University of California, Irvine, since 1989.

> **DIMENSION 1: Modeling** in preservice and inservice Teacher Education courses behaviors and strategies teachers can use in their classrooms. "Modeling" is the actual implementation of strategies being taught in the Teacher Education courses.

This differs from demonstration teaching in that demonstration usually shows how a particular strategy or piece of material can be used at various grade levels, but does not necessarily involve actual use by the teacher educators while teaching teachers. I believe it is imperative that Teacher Educators use and thereby "model" effective, research-based strategies when working with teachers.

> **DIMENSION 2: Guiding and empowering** teachers to implement strategies in their classrooms which they have experienced and found effective for their own learning.

As teachers experience effective strategies, they need to be guided and empowered to take risks and make effective decisions while planning and implementing instruction in their classrooms.

Based upon feedback I have received during observations and interviews with teachers, it is evident that those who experience "modeling" of various strategies during their Teacher Education experience feel more "empowered" to try these strategies as they teach. They appear more positive and express greater confidence about meeting the needs of their students.

Using the *Guidelines for Instructional Decision-Making* Framework to Model and Guide in Teacher Education

Modeling and guiding teachers has been effective, but teachers need to experience more than a random set of strategies. The complex needs of students and other professional demands require teachers to make a multitude of decisions every day...

"What do my students need to learn?"
"What does the state or district expect me to teach?"
"How much should I teach in a semester?"....

A framework is needed to help teachers visualize the types of decisions they should consider when planning and implementing classroom strategies. I developed **Guidelines** for Instructional Decision-Making (GUIDE) Framework over the past 15 years in response to this need.

The seven major decisions outlined in the G.U.I.D.E. Framework have provided the basis for modeling and guiding instruction during my teacher education courses:

GUIDE FRAMEWORK:

I. IDENTIFY LONG-RANGE GOALS AND BUILD BACKGROUND KNOWLEDGE.

II. PLAN EFFECTIVE INSTRUCTION BY KNOWING...

  - **A. AUDIENCE.**
  - **B. SPECIFIC COMPETENCIES.**
  - **C. ALTERNATIVE STRATEGIES AND CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT TECHNIQUES.**
  - **D. HUMAN AND MATERIAL RESOURCES.**
  - **E. CLASSROOM ORGANIZATION AND TIMING.**

III. IDENTIFY HIGHEST-PRIORITY STRENGTHS/NEEDS

IV. COMMUNICATE WITH STUDENTS, PARENTS, OTHER EDUCATORS

V. INSTRUCT BY INTEGRATING...

  - **A. OBJECTIVES**
  - **B. STRATEGIES AND MANAGEMENT TECHNIQUES**
  - **C. CLASSROOM ORGANIZATION**
  - **D. RESOURCES**
  - **E. TIMING**
  - **F. ACCOMMODATING FOR INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES: SETTING PRIORITIES FOR INDIVIDUALS AND GROUPS**

VI. EVALUATE AND KEEP RECORDS

VII. REVISE

Using the GUIDE Framework

Graduate students experience the GUIDE instructional decision-making process throughout my courses without being told initially why certain strategies are being used. For example, I **"Identify Long-Range Goals and Develop Background Knowledge"** through regularly reviewing the course syllabus, discussing applicable portions of the text, introducing and applying concepts from professional journal articles, discussing relevant concepts in class, requiring students to apply knowledge during fieldwork experiences...

"**Plans...**" are confirmed by getting to **know my audience** (graduate students) through information gathered from background information forms, get-acquainted session during class, pre-tests, journal writing...

I identify "**Specific Competencies**" I would like to address by sharing daily agenda items for each class meeting. I also attempt to discuss the purposes of class experiences. Students are offered opportunities to make choices and share their ideas or suggest specific agenda items.

We "**Communicate**" and "**Keep Records**" through "working portfolios" which are picked up at the beginning of each class and returned to me at the end of class. Assignments are left in portfolios and feedback with a record of progress is available in the portfolio. We may write notes to one another in the portfolio.

The GUIDE Framework is used throughout the quarter to Plan, Identify Priorities, Communicate, Instruct, Evaluate, Keep Records, and Revise. Students see that instructional decision-making is NOT always a step-by-step sequential process.

By the end of the first week of the class, graduate students have begun to make comments such as, "I think this would be a way for me to get to know the students in my class." "I'd like to have the students in my class take responsibility for keeping records like this." They recognize that what they are experiencing can be implemented in their classrooms. By the second week of the graduate course, we discuss more directly the implications of using specific strategies they are experiencing in their secondary classrooms. They are guided to select strategies which they in turn are expected to implement in the Field Setting.

Implementing Two-Dimensional Teaching

Graduate students and experienced teachers have been enthused when they experience strategies they can use in their classrooms. The greatest challenge has been to create and develop strategies that work effectively at all levels of instruction and which can be effectively modeled for teachers.

It takes more time to plan modeling strategies than it does to plan demonstration and lecture formats, but the benefits are greater. Creative development is helped as fellow instructors share ideas and implement the two-dimensional model.

Past Successes and Future Goals

Teacher candidates who have experienced the two-dimensional instruction continue to offer positive feedback about the impact of that experience. Feedback from administrators and teachers in the field settings has also been positive.

An informal collection of data has confirmed the success of the Reading course experiences, e.g., pre/post confidence levels of graduate students, graduate student journals, university evaluations, feedback forms from teachers in the field, and interviews with administrators and teachers...

More formal data collection is needed to validate the effectiveness of this program. I would like to follow-up more with secondary school students to determine how the field experience program has helped them.

A major goal in the future is to work with others in Teacher Education who would be interested in replicating and further developing the GUIDE Framework, so that it can provide educators with a decision-making framework for modeling strategies for any grade level in any area of instruction.

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Teacher Change Through Reading Recovery tm Inservice

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Teacher change can be measured over time. However, traditional short term inservice programs do not allow opportunities for observation and measurement of these changes. Reading Recovery tm with its requirement of a ten month inservice program provides extensive opportunities for observation and measurement of teachers' changes in their thinking and their behavior. This research has shown that teachers change in the topics they discuss as they observe individual instruction through a one way mirror (Pinnell, 1991); the levels of concepts they discuss in the same situation (Hansell, 1989); their interactions with children in both individual and group instruction (Gaffney, 1991); and in their discussions with others about their progress (Walker, 1992). An analysis of these changes suggests that they do not appear quickly, but rather over relatively long periods of time (6 to 10 months) when provided with weekly instruction and discussions of clinical lessons. Further anecdotal evidence suggests that some teachers consolidate their learning still further when faced with the same task, teaching individual first graders to read, after a summer vacation. The implications of these findings suggest that experienced teachers need consistent long term instructional support and guidance in critical observation of teaching over extended periods of time to continue to develop as masters of their field.

Attempts to measure real and important changes in teachers' thinking are not easy. Pinnell et al recorded discussion among teachers observing instructional sessions weekly throughout the school year. They then grouped the comments into categories called Children, Homes, Implementation, Practice, System and Theory. Analysis showed that comments about practice and implementation decreased while comments about children and theory increased throughout the year. Hansell (1989) recorded five of these same clinical discussions (roughly one session every two months. He categorized the comments using Frayer's (1968) framework of levels of concept development. Frayer posits four levels: Concrete concepts (something that can be observed directly); Identification (more general ideas which distinguish one type of behavior from other types); Classificatory concepts (which group other concepts and/or label them); and Formal concepts (which allow hypotheses and theories to be discussed). As noted in the table below, the level of concepts in the discussions consistently moved from the lower levels toward the formal level as the year progressed. Concrete comments were a low seven per cent of the first discussion, but declined fairly consistently to a null set (no concrete comments) in the final discussion. Comments classified as identification increased from 36%the first to 47%the second session and then declined in frequency to 11% in the final session. Classification comments declined by half from 42% in the first session to 22%the second session and then stayed around that level before declining to 11% in the final session. Teacher growth is shown in the increase in frequency of Formal comments from 14% on the first session to 77% in the final session.

Per Cent of Interactions by Level of Concept

Session/	Concrete	Identification	Classificatory	Formal	N
1	7.0	36.0	42.0	14.0	71
2	1.4	47.0	22.0	29.5	68
3	1.2	34.5	24.7	39.5	81
4	4.0	31.0	28.5	35.7	70
5	0.0	11.4	11.4	77.0	35

Measures by Gaffney (1991) show similar trends, but also measured teacher comments and prompts to children in both individual and group settings within the teachers' own school. This study showed that the teachers began using the language to describe the strategies students were using when they were behind the mirror then later began using prompts for those strategies with their individual students and still later began applying the same types of prompts with their students in small group instruction. Gaffney's work suggests that the discussion of appropriate prompts preceded actual use of the prompts with students in a manner similar to Vygotskyan theory that language draws attention to behavior and supports learning.

In a study that extended into a second year of Reading Recovery teaching, Traynelis-Yurek and Hansell (in preparation) found that teachers who had completed their year long inservice and then continued in the program viewed children differently than teachers who were in the eighth month of their training year when asked to rate each student against a listed criteria as being not developed, somewhat developed, or developed. These differences did not occur for students who were working on early strategies; 70% of the students at this level were viewed as not able to push tokens to segment word sounds. But, differences in ratings by the two groups of teachers did occur for students who were further along. More experienced teachers rated students working on transitional or beginning reading strategies such as "uses visual cues to correct some errors" higher than inservice teachers rated their students. In all, within the transitional strategy criteria, there were eight areas of difference in the somewhat developed range and ten areas of difference within the developed range. Within the beginning reader strategy criteria, there were four areas of difference in the non-developed items and six areas of difference in the somewhat developed items, and nine areas of difference in the developed items. In general, the more experienced teachers rated their students higher in the beginning reading strategies. At the earlier transitional strategy level, both groups of teachers rated higher on some specific strategies.. The only conclusion that can be stated at this time is that students were viewed differently by the two groups of teachers.

Walker (1992) described the changes in teaching behavior of one teacher pseudonamed Mary Anne. Mary Anne was a mature teacher with almost 20 years of experience as an aide and teacher. She had a master's degree in early childhood education, and taught both reading and mathematics in the Chapter I program. She was an organized teacher who was always prepared for class and for teaching her "poor little darlings". An October observation showed that Mary Anne helped the student do things he could do for himself. When James drew a picture too slowly before composing a sentence, Mary Anne drew part of the picture for him. Similarly, when James had a hard time composing the sentence, Mary Anne stated the rest for him. Instead of requiring James to point to the words as he read, Mary Anne pointed for him. Though this oversupportive behavior persisted through December, it gradually diminished throughout the year as she saw both her own and other teachers' students progress more rapidly when they were expected to do more independently. One clear bit of evidence of Mary Anne's shift to challenge the student more was a change from providing the student with texts which he could read with 99 or 100% accuracy to texts which he could read with 90 to 95% accuracy. This change took place in March. At the end of the year, Mary Anne described Reading Recovery as "the most demanding class that she had ever had including my master's degree program." She said that she had "begun to make decisions based on what the child demonstrates versus what a manual or lesson plan says." and that she was surprised to see the children makes such rapid progress by reading books "without a lot of skill instruction". Mary Anne was astonished by James accelerated learning and felt that she had learned how fast some of the slow starters can go.

It is this last concept, the idea that the lowest readers in the class can learn to read that is critical to teacher education as a whole. Another teacher noted this explicitly when she said, "Working with the very lowest kids and having them succeed changed how I look at kids. I have more problems accepting a diagnosis of LD than I did before. Seeing accelerated progress convinces me that what looks like a "slow learner" or inattentive child may just be a confusion which when addressed allows him/her to be average." Besides the obvious implication that teacher change takes time and intensive effort, there are other implications from these studies on teacher education as a whole. We can teach teachers that everyone can learn. Demonstrating student change within the classroom is conclusive evidence. It is essential that we continue as teacher educators to make this point. Conventional wisdom runs contrary to this point. Students from certain "cultures", however defined, do start out with less school knowledge than others, but they can all learn when they are provided with instruction at their level. If this means brief periods of individual instruction as in Reading Recovery tm, then that seems a small price to pay for erasing illiteracy and increasing a student's knowledge that effort provides results under the right circumstances. A final implication follows: resources are needed for both teachers and students to support learning. We cannot afford to continue with haphazard instruction of students or of inservice teachers. Appropriate, field tested options must be available as long term programs for teachers. Programs may be shorter term for younger students because they have fewer established concepts to challenge before learning new ideas and less emotional baggage to stand in the way of learning. Clinical instruction is effective for students and adults. While it is far more expensive than traditional classroom instruction in the short term, quality instruction which prevents failure and provides hope for individuals is cost effective in the long term.

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INTO THE "REAL WORLD": RESTRUCTURING TEACHER EDUCATION IN READING

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In response to calls for school reform beginning in the early 1980s, one current movement within teacher education institutions in the United States and elsewhere is to provide programs that place prospective teachers in the "real world" of K-12 schools prior to student teaching. Central to most of these programs is a belief that prospective teachers need to develop habits of reflective thinking about teaching and their previously-acquired professional views at this early stage of their professional development "since it is unlikely that habits of inquiry will be acquired on the job" (Feiman-Nemser & Buchman, 1985, p. 56). Proponents also believe that by engaging in early field experiences, prospective teachers will become familiar with the social and cultural aspects of schools, including learning how to work effectively with urban, rural, at-risk, and/or culturally diverse students.

Differences Among Field Programs

Not surprisingly, the philosophy, structure and content of early field programs differ considerably. A wide continuum is especially evident in how teacher educators view reflection. For example, in some programs both the term and the process of reflective thinking are not clearly defined. Other programs confine reflective thinking to prospective teachers' work in classrooms. Further along the continuum, other institutions, using the metaphor of liberation, encourage perspective teachers to take charge of their professional lives. They employ reflection as a central component of their field programs, and also distinguish between hierarchical stages of reflection; that is: (1) technical (i.e., the application of educational knowledge to achieve appropriate results); (2) practical (i.e., evaluating consequences in terms of one's actions); and (3) critical (i.e. considering moral and ethical issues) (Schon, 1983).

According to some teacher educators, it is imperative that prospective teachers develop reflective habits before entering classrooms.

Only then will they be able to resist the utilitarian perspectives imposed by the institutionalism of schools. Therefore, a few teacher education programs train prospective teachers to become reflective practitioners prior to engaging in field experiences. This position is demonstrated in one United States program where prospective teachers practice assuming the role of teacher in a contrived, controlled university setting. They teach short standardized lessons to peers, receive peer critiques and feedback, and then reflect upon their teaching (Cruikshank, Holt, Fay, Williams, Kennedy, Myers, & Hough, 1981). A more comprehensive program at the University of Amsterdam teaches prospective teachers to reflect upon their actions, thoughts, and feelings in a specially-designed, first-year practicum. Through a five-phase reflective teaching model (ALACT), prospective teachers work with their fellow university students and learn to designate a teaching act, look at their actions during teaching, identify particular aspects of the lessons, and create and initiate more productive alternative methods (Korthagen, 1985).

In contrast, other teacher educators adhere to the position that prospective teachers can only become expert practitioners, capable of reflection and deliberate action, by connecting practice and theory in authentic teaching contexts (Kennedy, 1987). By providing a "guided immersion" field experience, clinical instructors assist prospective teachers to learn, simultaneously, how to: (1) reflect about their teaching and possibly broader educational concerns; (2) construct pedagogical content knowledge about subject matter content such as learning to connect reading and language arts theory to practice; and (3) construct pedagogical learner knowledge such as learning procedures for working with small and large groups by actually working with learners in the context of the classroom setting (Shulman, 1987).

Some teacher education programs in the United States, Canada, Great Britain, and Australia assist prospective teachers in becoming reflective practitioners by engaging in action research. Action research is defined as "research conducted in a field setting and involving those actively native to the field, usually along with an outsider in the solution of problems and practices" (Noffke & Zeichner, 1987, p. 3). There are also more radical proponents who use action research in an attempt to "replace the prevailing paradigm of teacher as a . . . classroom manager with the more emancipatory model of the teacher as critical theorist" (Giroux & McLaren, 1987, p. 286). Advocates of this position urge and challenge teachers to consider the broader moral, ethical, social, and political dimensions of the teaching role. For example, in the role of political activist, prospective teachers examine and critique some condition of schooling which they view as obstacles to teaching and learning.

Another type of field program emphasizes linkages between colleges of education and K-12 schools. The idea of an informal or formal university/local school district connection is not new, but has recently been "revisited" in response to state and national reports calling for school improvement. University/K-12 connections operate under such titles as: (1) portal schools; (2) collaboratives; (3) partnerships; (4) coalitions; (5) networks; (6) consortiums; (7) clusters; (8) collectives; and (9) interorganizational alliances (IOAs). Three types of collaboratives have been identified: (1) cooperative (i.e., based upon personal contacts rather than institutional affiliations); (2) symbiotic (i.e., based upon organizational alliances, reciprocity and mutual self-interests); and (3) organic (i.e., identifying jointly owned issues, and working toward a common goal in a semi-autonomous manner).

Critiques of Field Programs

Despite such widespread acceptance of the benefits of field experiences, some experts criticize these programs "as often miseducative rather than helpful" (Zeichner, 1986, p. 5). Concerns fall into four areas: (1) practices are based upon unexamined assumptions; (2) participation may have minimal or negative effects on prospective teachers' perspectives and practices; (3) urging prospective teachers to think reflectively may be a waste of time; and (4) participation may influence prospective teachers to develop psychological role conflict.

One of the major indictments of field programs is that activities are based upon a limited amount of research. There are few experimental and longitudinal studies reported, and an overabundance of survey investigations which generally supply little information about program effectiveness. Study results are also ambiguous and contradictory. Therefore, firm conclusions cannot be drawn about the impact of different types of field programs. There are both positive and negative effects on participants which are often overlooked by researchers because of their subtleness.

Another concern is that field experiences may have little impact on prospective teachers' beliefs and views. Some "studies suggest . . . that preservice programs are not very powerful interventions" (Zeichner, 1986, p. 144). According to Lortie (1975), before prospective teachers enter colleges of education, they have already learned how to think and act like a teacher through their long "apprenticeship of observation" as K-12 students. "Throughout this process...they internalize to some degree the values, beliefs, and practices of former teachers" (Goodlad, 1990, p. 206). Moreover, Goodlad (1990) suspects that many teacher education programs do not even attempt to alter prospective teachers' previously acquired views.

Other investigations indicate that field experiences may further exacerbate prospective teachers' utilitarian perspectives; that is, to influence them to focus on how to do things rather to consider why certain practices occur, or what practices may need to be altered. For example, in most field programs, prospective teachers are evaluated, in part, on their abilities to keep groups of students relatively quiet and on-task. Therefore, one of their goals is to learn how to manage groups of students effectively. Understandably, attention to management concerns may become more important for prospective teachers than teaching of content.

Some critics assert that reflective activities as a component of field placements are simply a waste of time. Many experienced, effective classroom teachers are not particularly reflective. The structure of the school does not permit much time for reflection. Rather than seriously and analytically consider events, teachers must react quickly to unpredictable student-behaviors and immediately adjust schedules to innumerable interruptions in school routine. Thus, reflective activities conducted within the context of the school may be powerless against the institutional and societal force of those schools on participants. Additionally, prospective teachers may not be ready to learn how to reflect upon experiences or question existing routines until later on in their professional lives. A number of researchers have investigated the concerns of prospective teachers (Gipe & Richards, 1990). Findings indicate that initially, many prospective teachers are preoccupied with self and self-concerns. Developmentally, they may not be ready to learn how to reflect upon their teaching experiences or question existing routines until later on in their professional lives.

Several studies have found that prospective teachers in field placements may experience psychological role conflict. Certainly, prospective teachers have a need to establish rapport and closeness with the students they teach. For instance, many write in their journals, "I want the students to like me". Yet, their need for closeness conflicts with the traditional bureaucratic role of teacher. Research indicates that some prospective teachers who are confused about their professional role become dissatisfied and ineffective. Moreover, they may experience a decrease in self-image and self-esteem. A second type of psychological role conflict may occur when prospective teachers from one socioeconomic milieu (e.g., middle class) are placed in teaching contexts alien from their own socioeconomic background experiences (e.g., an urban, inner-city school). Several investigations conclude "that schools in different cultures have different effects on factors such as self-concept and teaching attitudes of the prospective teacher" (Waxman & Walberg, 1986, p. 174).

Summary

In response to calls for school reform, teacher education programs now provide prospective teachers with experiences in K-12 classrooms prior to student teaching. These experiences differ considerably with respect to philosophy, structure, and content. A wide continuum is also evident in how prospective teachers learn to reflect about their teaching and their profession. There is a need for more detailed presentations of these various programs, case studies if you will, as well as research results that inform teacher educators regarding the most effective programs. Erickson (1992) states, "In reporting the specifics of what local actors do, narrative case study is describing patterns of activity that are inherently not generalizable at the same level of specificity as the description itself. The generic and stable processes discovered in case study, however, can be seen at work in multiple settings..." (p. 10). Therefore, while there can never be "one best way" to prepare teachers, it would seem that there may be common patterns, characteristics, or processes, which, when applied to the specific context of a particular setting, result in effective teacher education programs. Only by sharing the details of these varied and successful programs can these commonalities be identified.

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Authentic Assessment Vs. Traditional Measurement:

A Conflict in the Preparation of Preservice Teachers of Reading

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An elementary education major said to her advisor: "The instructor in the measurement course said that whole language was not a good method to use because it couldn't be measured." While this was probably not an entirely accurate quote, the point was made that there was a conflict between what our preservice teachers were being taught in the reading/language arts methods courses and what they were being taught in the measurement course. The teacher-education faculty in both reading/language arts and measurement were some of our best; they prided themselves on providing quality instruction for future teachers. What had happened?

Based on concerns expressed by students and faculty, we began to read the literature of both disciplines to compare what was being said about assessment. Although we were involved in the administration of all programs in the college, we were members of the reading/language arts field by training and experience, so we were particularly interested in what was being published in the measurement literature. The measurement course is taken by preservice teachers from all specialization areas; the measurement faculty were not likely to make changes based on what was happening in only one content area.

The most helpful article in understanding the change in educational assessment that is occurring in American schools was one by Stiggins (1991). This was the lead article in an issue of Applied Measurement in Education devoted entirely to "Performance Assessment." According to Stiggins, a 60-year era of educational assessment is coming to an end and a new one is beginning.

Six Decades of Traditional Measurement

The old era began in the late 1920s in response to the needs of an emerging industrial society that had organized its schools in an assembly-line or factory model to educate large numbers of ethnically diverse students to meet the workforce requirements of the growing industrial complex. The objective pencil-and-paper test seemed the ideal way to measure student progress from year to year efficiently and economically. At the same time it avoided the subjective judgments of teachers, which were said to be biased.

This 60-year period was characterized by three patterns with which we must deal today. First, assessment was separated from instruction because teachers and administrators increasingly looked to test and textbook publishers to develop "scientifically precise" assessment instruments. Second, the publishers took great advantage of this opportunity to initiate a program of psychometric research, development, and refinement of the objective pencil-and-paper test that soon made assessment into a "science" that only assessment experts could fathom. Third, policy makers, impressed by the efficiency of the objective test, added layer upon layer of centralized testing programs: from school-wide to district-, state-, nation-, and world-wide testing programs. The production of test materials and the computer management of testing programs became big business.

What has caused the disenchantment with this apparent success story? Stiggins (1991) cites fundamental changes in our view of schools and assessment due to three factors: the accountability movement, a re-examination of the desirable outcomes of schooling, and the realization that other assessment techniques are necessary and available. First, concern for the quality of U.S. schools in the late 1960s led to the movement to hold schools accountable for student attainment of outcomes. What did we have in place that would tell us that students had attained the outcomes? Why, objective pencil-and-paper tests! Thus, the accountability movement led to greater reliance on and visibility of the results of standardized tests. Such testing was a "high stakes" endeavor. Test results provided the basis for very important decisions about individual student progress and for the ranking of schools by district, districts by state, states by the nation, and U.S. schools by the world.

Second, during the 1980s a number of studies began to re-examine the outcomes of schooling that were desirable to educate citizens for the 21st century. What emerged was the conclusion that the majority of educational outcomes we wanted students to attain could not be adequately measured by objective pencil-and-paper tests. We needed citizens who could be

> information managers, not information memorizers. Further, we realized that higher order thinking and problem-solving processes often are very complex, sometimes requiring many steps, more than one problem solver, the application of knowledge and skills from more than one school subject at a time, and the completion of some of the work outside school. Similarly, we came to understand that writing and reading processes are far more complex processes than previously thought. (Stiggins, 1991, p. 267)

Third, dissatisfaction with the inability of pencil-and-paper tests to measure these more complex outcomes stimulated an interest in alternative assessment techniques. These are also called performance assessment or authentic assessment methodologies. For the moment we will use the term, performance assessment, and return later to the distinction between performance and authentic assessments. Performance assessment is not new. For example, the instructor of the Driver's Education course in high school has long made performance the centerpiece of his/her assessment of student achievement. Vocational, art, and music education are other areas in which performance is highly valued. What is new is the increasing use of performance assessment to measure achievement in the abstract, verbally-dominated academic areas.

Measurement of Literacy Learning

During the last 20 years the definition of reading comprehension has changed. We used to teach that it consisted of a number of subskills that could be taught and tested separately. According to Tierney (1990), four major developments since the 1970s have shaped the redefinition of reading comprehension: viewing reading (a) as a constructive process; (b) as inversely related to, and highly correlated with, writing; (c) as engagement; and (d) as situation-based. Reading is now viewed as an interactive, contextualized, holistic process during which readers construct meaning based on their prior knowledge and their interpretations of information presented in the text (Dole, Duffy, Roehler, & Pearson, 1991; Valencia, 1991; Winograd, Paris, & Bridge, 1991). We have moved away from an emphasis on the product of reading (e.g., the one right answer on an objective test) and writing (e.g., the technically perfect written composition on a topic assigned by the teacher) to an emphasis on the processes in which readers and writers engage.

Winograd et al. (1991) have presented four reasons why traditional assessment is no longer the best choice and must not be the only choice for determining student progress in literacy learning. First, traditional assessment is based on the old skills-based model of reading and writing. There is less and less congruence between classroom instruction and what is being measured on the standardized achievement test. Teachers, afraid that their students will not do well on "the test," take time away from the new curriculum to drill students on isolated skills and give them practice in filling in bubbles. Second, traditional assessment encourages the use of artificial test-taking skills, guessing, or even cheating to get the one right answer, rather than encouraging the use of learning strategies that students have been taught to use in actual reading situations (e.g., predicting, rereading, using context, and relating to personal experiences). Third, traditional assessment redefines educational goals so that they become defined in terms of the knowledge that is demonstrated on the test. The curriculum is narrowed and focused on what can be measured by multiple choice tests. Fourth, traditional assessment is often misinterpreted and misused. The scores on achievement tests are interpreted by policy makers, administrators, parents, and the general public as representing complete and accurate measures of students' learning. In short, "what is inspected, is respected" (Kapinus, 1992).

Preservice teachers in our methods classes are being instructed in how to teach and assess reading and writing according to the new model of literacy learning. They learn to use direct observations of behavior, portfolios of student work, logs and journals, student interviews, and other types of performance assessment to ascertain whether students are becoming active, strategic, meaning-making readers and writers. However, this model is in direct conflict with the model that underlies the current assessment practices that our preservice teachers are taught in their measurement class.

The Measurement Course for Preservice Teachers

Our teacher education program requires all preservice teachers to take a 3-semester-hour course entitled Measurement for Teachers. The textbook is among the most widely-used in the country. It is clearly-written, logically organized, and contains objectives, summaries, practice exercises, and examples of instruments that assist in learning the concepts. (The textbook is not referenced because there is no desire to single it out; it is representative of the field.)

The textbook clearly emphasizes that the preferred test is the objective test--a test that has items that require students to write or select a best answer--because these tests can be scored more objectively, and reliability is enhanced. If students write their response, the "best answer" is in the teacher's head so there is less chance for objectivity, given the many ways that the same information can be conveyed in written English. Therefore, the preferred type of objective test is one in which the answers are given and students have only to select them. Finally, because of its psychometric properties, the multiple-choice test is the "top-of-the-line" in objective tests. A full chapter is devoted to the construction of multiple choice tests while other types of objective tests are discussed together in one chapter. In addition to learning how to write multiple-choice items, preservice teachers are trained to compute analyses of multiple-choice item difficulty and discrimination, even though difficulty and discrimination indices are readily available when multiple-choice tests are computer scored.

Of seven chapters devoted to designing classroom assessment, only two deal with nonobjective tests. There is one chapter on constructing essay and product development tests, with a caveat given early in the chapter that these kinds of tests should be used to measure only those skills that cannot be measured with objective tests. There is another chapter on rating student performance, attitudes, and behavior. Again, the reader is warned at the beginning of the chapter about the problems with these kinds of measures--problems even greater than those delineated for essays and products. The use of portfolios, logs, and journals is not mentioned at all.

To demonstrate how each instructional goal must be subdivided into objectives and subskills, the author of the textbook uses the instructional goal of "Capitalizing Proper Nouns." For this goal there are 12 behavioral objectives. For each objective there are 1 to 4 subskills for a total of 26 subskills. There are 32 items on the posttest to measure the student's skill in capitalizing proper nouns. Even if a student made a perfect score on the posttest, we still do not know if s/he could capitalize proper nouns when performing an authentic task such a writing a letter to the editor of a newspaper.

One of the course requirements is that preservice teachers will construct assessment instruments for their area of specialization. When the teaching of reading was skills-based, traditional measurement concepts could be easily understood and applied by preservice teachers of reading. Now that reading is taught and assessed as a holistic process, preservice teachers of reading have difficulty seeing the relevancy of instruction in a measurement course that emphasizes the superiority of multiple-choice tests.

Preparing Preservice Teachers to Assess Literacy Learning

Our review of the literature has indicated clearly that change in the assessment of educational outcomes is currently a "hot" topic. Our references and selected bibliography give a sampling of the numerous articles on assessment that have appeared very recently in newspapers, journals, and conference proceedings. In addition, within the last 5 years there have been a number of journals that devoted a complete issue, or the major theme of an issue, to assessment:

The Reading Teacher, 40(8), April 1987
Educational Leadership, 46(7), April 1989
Educational Researcher, 18(9), December 1989
Educational Researcher, 20(5), June-July 1991
Applied Measurement in Education, 4(4), Fall 1991
Educational Leadership, 49(8), May 1992

We began our review motivated by an interest in resolving conflicting views of assessment for preservice teachers of reading. What we discovered was that the movement toward performance assessment was spread across all the major academic curriculum areas. As Stiggins (1991) said, "Our current assessment upheaval is not simply the latest fad to sweep the educational scene. Rather, it signals the end of a 60-year era of educational assessment and our passage into a whole new era" (p. 263).

For the most part the literature addresses the need for change to a greater emphasis on performance assessment and the problems associated with such change. Less attention has been given to the preparation of teachers for this change. However, research reported by two groups of researchers in the Midwest support several conclusions related to teacher training: (a) teachers in the field believe that the formal preparation they had in measurement was largely irrelevant to their needs; (b) teachers perceive a much greater need for instruction in nontest evaluative procedures; and thus, (c) the content of the measurement course should be restructured so as to better prepare preservice teachers for the assessment tasks germane to the daily life of the classroom (Gullickson, 1984, 1986; Gullickson & Ellwein, 1985; Gullickson & Hopkins, 1987; Stiggins & Bridgeford, 1985; Stiggins & Conklin, 1988; Stiggins, Conklin, & Bridgeford, 1986).

Based on our review we concluded that five areas should receive increased emphasis in a measurement course for preservice teachers.

1. Knowledge of ways to determine which assessment methods are appropriate to the goals of instruction for which teachers are responsible in their classrooms. "There is a strong argument to be made for testing different types of knowledge in different ways" (Frechtling, 1991). An emphasis on the superiority of the multiple choice test can mislead preservice teachers into thinking that it is better to measure less important skills with multiple choice tests than more important goals with nontest evaluative activities. One is reminded of the story about the drunk who lost his cuff link in the middle of the block one dark night but decided to look for it at the corner under the street lamp because there was more light there!

2. Much more knowledge about and practice in the planning and use of performance assessments in the classroom. "Large-scale assessments currently account for only a small fraction of 1% of all the assessment events conducted in America's schools. The other 99% of assessments are conducted by teachers in classrooms day to day. . . .The majority of classroom assessments are performance assessments " (Stiggins, 1991, p. 271).

3. Knowledge of ways to use authentic performance assessments whenever possible. Performance assessments refer to the kind of response to be given by students; authentic performance assessments refer to the real-life context in which the response occurs (Meyer, 1992; Valencia, 1991). Instructional and assessment situations should be so similar that an outside observer would find it hard to tell the difference (Pearson & Valencia, 1987).

4. Knowledge about the use and interpretation of standardized tests. Standardized tests are not going to disappear. They will occupy a prominent place in the assessment of student achievement for the foreseeable future. Preservice teachers need to know the limitations of these tests and the best use to make of the scores (Haladyna, Nolan, & Haas, 1991; Paris, Lawton, Turner, & Roth, 1991; Smith & Rottenberg, 1991; Worthen & Spandel, 1991).

5. Information about the current initiatives toward the establishment of a national system of standards and performance assessments (National Center on Education and the Economy, n.d.; Rothman, 1992) and the use of performance assessments in state-wide testing programs across the country (Aschbacher, 1991; Legg & Dovell, 1991; Merina, 1992; O'Neil, 1992). Teachers will be expected to administer and score these tests.

At our institution we are fortunate to have in place a course in measurement that preservice teachers are required to take. As of 5 years ago, less than half of the teacher education programs of the member institutions of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education required a formal measurement course for graduation (Schafer & Lissitz, 1987). However, because there is a separate course, and because it is taught by measurement faculty, and because communication across departmental and program divisions often languishes in large colleges such as ours, there is now a gulf that must be bridged if we are to provide an integrated knowledge base for our preservice teachers. Our reading/language arts and measurement faculty are building the bridge in several ways. They are reading articles selected from journals in both fields. They are presenting to each other what is being taught in their respective courses. They are discussing the changes that have occurred in methods of instruction and of assessment. We hope that soon they may be ready to consider ways that they could collaborate in the teaching of their courses--for example, team teaching, guest lectures, and blocking of the methods and measurement courses.

Brewer has pointed out that performance assessment, if it is to succeed, will require systemic change in the schools. "What we are really asking is that teachers learn a new curriculum, change the way they teach, and assess student results differently" (Brewer, 1992, p. 28). We propose that resolving the conflict between traditional measurement and authentic assessment for our preservice teachers will probably not be accomplished by tinkering with courses alone. It may require systemic change in our teacher education program.

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THE INTEGRATED READING CURRICULUM:

CREATING A STUDENT-CENTERED ENVIRONMENT

IN PRESERVICE METHODS COURSES

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Integrate reading and writing. Share the best of children's literature-both fiction and non-fiction. Engage students in all kinds of writing. Provide opportunities for purposeful learning. Include authentic assessments. Guide students toward self-assessment and reflection. These may sound like familiar suggestions for transforming an elementary classroom from teacher-directed to student-centered, but when applied to a college program, these border on anarchy. Yet, these were among the suggestions that did lead to the reconceptualization of Alverno College's entire reading/language arts curriculum. Breaking away from the traditional college transmission model of teaching seemed like the logical move for us to make.

Working for well over a year on the redesign of the courses, the instructors decided that incorporating holistic methods into the existing courses was not enough to encourage preservice teachers to teach differently. Instead, we chose to redesign the whole curriculum. There has been research to suggest that student-centered learning environments that support involvement and reflection could be created at the college level (Huck, 1989). Responding to the adage, "we teach as we were taught," we wanted to move from the traditional mode of instilling students with information to a model which was in accord with our belief in holistic learning. As a result, the entire reading/ language arts sequence of courses has been revamped to model and reflect the integrated curriculum that faculty encourage preservice teachers to embrace.

Instead of the traditional discrete courses for reading methods, language arts methods, children's literature, and remedial reading/reading strategies, the new curriculum integrates all of these areas into each of three courses. In three consecutive semesters students now learn about emergent literacy, reading and language arts methods, children's literature, and diagnostic strategies as inseparable and interrelated components. In the first semester devoted to the early primary level, students observe modeling of emergent literacy writing strategies, practice those strategies in a related field placement, and receive feedback on their teaching. In the second semester students engage in readers' and writers' workshops as they work with later primary children. Students learn and practice content reading strategies, dig into research, and develop integrated programs for the intermediate grades during the third semester. Throughout all three semesters of the Integrated Reading Curriculum, students immerse themselves in reading children's literature, apply diagnostic strategies and develop appropriate assessments for children (Sneed & Henn-Reinke 1991).

During the planning of the reading/language arts curriculum, we identified a primary goal for the Integrated Reading Curriculum, (IRC): create a student-centered environment which will support preservice teachers in their own thinking about reading/language arts (Short & Burke, 1989). We planned to guide students to develop an understanding of emerging literacy and integrated learning, lead them to appreciate children's literature, model the kinds of teaching strategies we wanted our students to adopt, and guide our students toward an awareness of their own learning strategies. In order for this to happen, we had to establish an environment in which students were actively engaged in learning, instructors served as models and facilitators, and students' ideas and opinions were valued. Using IRC-1, the first Integrated Reading Currriculum course which deals with pre-K-1 learners, I will describe how we achieved that goal.

Field Component

A special feature for each student in IRC-1 is a school-based reading field. This field is unique in that a group of IRC-1 students and the college instructor are based at the same school site. For the entire semester students work for two hours each week in an assigned pre-K, kindergarten, or 1st grade classroom during reading/language arts instruction and meet for seminar on-site with the college instructor.

Each week the student completes a log about his/her experience. The logs have specific prompts related to the reading field setting which lead the student to refine his/her observational skills in a systematic way (Wedman, 1989) Additionally, the student is formally observed by the college instructor. For this, the student must prepare an appropriate lesson for the learners, incorporating strategies s/he has learned. Through these experiences, students observe, apply, and reflect upon the strategies they are learning concurrently in the methods course. From the first week of IRC-1, our students truly view themselves as teachers as well as learners.

Integrating Emerging Reading and Children's Literature

To immerse the students in children's literature, a literature strand is woven throughout the IRC's. Beginning with IRC-1, we read aloud daily in class. We share Big Books and pattern and predictable books, model shared reading, and do echo and choral reading. Students bring in their own favorites within genres to share, too. In one of the first classes of the semester, we teach students how to use a data base to keep track of the books they are reading. Students feel a sense of control as they learn to utilize the information in the data base as they work on integrated themes later in the semester. Each student also keeps a literature log where s/he keeps class notes about literature, e.g., author information, recommended titles, genres, etc. as well as his/her own reflections on particular literature and theme ideas. The students are also guided to one of the book review journals in the library which they read and analyze.

Several authentic assessments are built into this initial course. For the Author Auction each student selects an appropriate author to research and "sell" to the class in an oral presentation. In a written assessment at mid-semester, students must recommend appropriate literature to be used in a kindergarten or first grade class. The final assessment is the creation of a literature-based unit for first grade which many students actually are able to implement in their field classroom. Because this unit must include integration of the whole curriculum, students must choose literature which is developmentally appropriate and which also serves to support subject area concepts. Criteria for this unit include self-assessment by the preservice teacher and assessment of the first grade students as well as assessment by the first graders themselves.

Something very simple that we do throughout the semester that has had a tremendous effect on both the quantity and quality of literature our students purchase is distribute and discuss paperback book order forms from some of the popular school clubs, e.g., Trumpet, Scholastic, and Troll. We begin the semester pointing out those books which the instructors know to be quality literature, but by the end of the semester, the students themselves are doing most of the sharing. Near the end of the semester, as many children's literature instructors do, we take the students to an excellent children's bookstore in the area where a former children's librarian shares the best of what's new in books for young learners. By this time, our students are confidently recommending books to each other and to the instructors!

Utilizing Writing

As we introduce our students to emerging reading and children's literature, we also provide background about emerging writing. Students witness different developmental writing stages as they work in their field classrooms. To encourage them to see the benefits of writing for children, we provide many opportunities for our students to write, too. Thus, student writing is another important strand throughout Alverno's Integrated Reading Curriculum. For preservice teachers to apply what they have learned in their methods courses to their own classrooms, they must realize that the strategies instructors teach are a necessary part of learning. If they have integrated these same strategies into their own learning, they are more likely to use them with their future students. This development of metacognitive awareness rather than simple skill mastery should be a main goal for all preservice teachers (Feathers & White, 1987).

Because we believe that our preservice teachers will use us as models for their own teaching, we provide writing assignments that encourage students to integrate their thinking about teaching, lead students to reflect on lesson planning as well as assignments, force students to involve themselves in self-assessment, and promote student exploration of values. For example, rather than lecturing on a strategy, the instructor models its use for the methods course students reflecting on her own thoughts and reasoning as she does so. This modeling, expressing one's own thoughts while performing the task has been shown to be more effective than direct instruction alone (Gorrell and Capron, 1989). When working on how to evaluate the running record of a first grader's oral reading, for instance, the instructor thinks aloud about what information she is learning from the running record and how she will analyze it and use the information to help the student improve his/her reading. Then the preservice teachers work in pairs analyzing running records in the same manner, thinking aloud and writing their recommendations and reports.

In addition to the literature logs mentioned earlier, students also utilize dialogue journals, reflective writing, and literature response journals (Sneed & Henn-Reinke, 1991). The dialogue journals are kept throughout the sequence of courses as a means of showing student progress and of individualizing instruction. Questions and comments that might not be verbalized during the class period can readily be written in the journal and responded to later by the instructor. Reflective writing often takes the form of a simple, "I used to think ______, but now I think ______," in which the student is led to keep track of changing perceptions of reading/language arts strategies. By introducing a variety of approaches to these journals, we guide the preservice teacher to see the many ways literature response journals could be used in elementary classrooms. Furthermore, this writing provides the preservice teacher an outlet for his/her own responses to literature. It is important to note that these assignments do not require the preservice teacher to "act" like a first grader. That would certainly not be authentic. Instead they respond as teachers who know the interests and abilities of first graders and who might be using this literature with young readers. For example, after discussing attributes of a picture story book, preservice teachers read an unfamiliar picture story book and respond to it, both aesthetically and critically. Their responses then are both personal and informed.

Since many new teachers make assignments and respond to student work in their own classrooms in the same manner in which their methods instructors taught them (Applebee, 1981), it is extremely important that we provide the best possible models of instruction for students in our methods courses. We need to guide our preservice students to use writing to facilitate learning rather than just to assess knowledge. We need to make their assignments authentic and purposeful so that the writing that they assign children will also fit that criteria.

It is important for our students to realize that writing is not merely a teaching strategy in which they are just role-playing children as they write. It is also a valuable way to improve their understanding of course content. Writing is the one activity which allows an individual to learn through visual, kinesthetic, and reflective experience (Stover, 1986). It also encourages active involvement, practice with learning in a variety of contexts, organization of ideas, critical thinking, and self-assessment, all of which are as important to an adult learner as a child. Through engaging in meaningful writing, preservice teachers are able to make connections between their professional preparation and the actual classroom experience.

The Role of Assessment

All of the work described above would be invalidated if we did not include holistic assessment as a part of the program. Authentic assessments, involving multiple performances in which students are a part of the process, are a critical component of the Integrated Reading Curriculum. However, just as it is difficult to convince children to look closely at their strengths and weaknesses, it takes time and teacher modeling for college students to engage in self-evaluation. As important as the activities and projects themselves are clear criteria so that our preservice teachers know exactly what we expect in a given performance. Often we have revised assignments when we discovered that the criteria we set could be better met in other ways. Having heard a high school English teacher describe how he established critieria for his class by telling the students that their work had to be perfect and then having the students describe what would make it so, we decided to try the same approach with our preservice teachers midway through IRC-1. We were gratified to see that they, like the high school students, had a sound understanding indeed of what would make a particular project perfect. Because of the environment of trust that is established early in the class and the explicit criteria which is always shared with or created by students, they are soon willing to engage in peer assessment as well as self-assessment.

In IRC-1 assessment begins with the student taking stock of his/her beliefs about language learning. In an essay written the previous semester, the student has shared personal beliefs about teaching and learning. Throughout IRC-1, the student rethinks these views and writes a new reflection at the end of the semester. As described earlier, a variety of assessments are an integral part of student learning about reading, literature, and writing, e.g., Author Auction, field observation, and integrated unit. Through self-assessment in each of these, students are able to evaluate their own growth and needs.

Conclusion

In Becoming a Nation of Readers: The Report of the Commission on Reading, the authors suggest that undergraduates are not receiving as much instruction as needed in reading methodology (Anderson, Hiebert, Scott, and Wilkinson, 1984). This report is one of many in the last ten years to suggest that there is a chasm between what is being practiced in public schools and, as what educators believe to be true about children's acquisition of language and their reading and writing behaviors (Huck, 1989). If, indeed, we do believe that teachers teach as they were taught, the mere addition of more hours to the education major's program may not be the best choice. If those methods courses consist mostly of individual student readings followed by lectures on how to use the new strategies, is it any wonder that our preservice teachers do not immediately embrace these strategies as their own?

For preservice teachers to use what they have learned from methods courses in their own classrooms, they must realize that the strategies we teach are a necessary part of learning. If they have integrated these same strategies into their own learning, they are more likely to use them with their own students in the future. This development of metacognitive awareness rather than simple skill mastery must be an important goal college instructors set for their preservice teachers.if novice teachers are to apply these strategies in their own classrooms.

Our belief is that preservice teachers who have been immersed in a methods curriculum which is student-centered and which has involved them in holistic learning will be the teachers of the future who will create functional environments in their classrooms where children actively use reading and writing as tools of literacy. They will plan instructional experiences for children which will challenge them to use higher level cognitive abilities as they write and reflect. They will provide opportunities for children to engage in a variety of reading and writing experiences and to share their reading and writing with others. They will plan assessments which will engage their students and themselves in reflective self-evaluation as they learn together. Above all, these beginning teachers will understand from the start that how they teach is just as important as what they teach.

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A SUMMARY OF THE RELATIVE EFFICACY OF COMPUTER-ASSISTED READING PROGRAMS VERSUS TRADITIONAL INSTRUCTION

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The technological age has ushered computers into homes and schools. A school hardly exists which does not have at least one of these marvels, and some have fully networked computer classrooms. These sophisticated, electronic geniuses aroused curiosity among reading educators with their drill and practice and tutorial reading skills programs. Interest has been further heightened by the introduction of John Henry Martin's Write to Read (1986) program produced and promoted by International Business Machines. It is easy to become excited about new things, especially instructional courseware, but Rauch (1986) cautioned educators to remain skeptical about the wonders of computer-assisted instruction (CAI) in face of the public's willingness to believe without question CAI publicists' and proponents' claims that "newer" is better where reading programs are concerned.

Though computers and their programs can be dazzling in classrooms, their novelty has not precluded teachers from asking about the educational effectiveness of Computer Assisted Reading Instruction (CARI). The question on most people's minds is, "Are computers better instructors than teachers?" This report should interest every educator who deals with reading instruction because determining the efficacy of CARI in relation to traditional instruction is the purpose of this report. Blair, Rupley, and Jones (1986) aptly stated that only when instructional outcomes of microcomputers are adequately assessed can external validity be established. This investigation was in search of instructional outcomes of CARI microcomputer programs, and perhaps it will make a contribution to establishment of external validity. The findings also might be helpful to curriculum decision makers who must decide whether schools should allocate extensive funding for computers and their courseware from usually meager resources.

A few have responded to this important question. In 1983 Roblyer and King reported on computer-based reading instruction applying a meta-analysis statistical procedure to several small studies. Based on their findings, Roblyer and King thought CARI was beneficial. However, Marsh (1983) came to the opposite conclusion reporting that CAI reading studies were not in agreement. The time lapse since these contradictory conclusions has permitted additional investigators to present newer findings. Thus, a review of CARI empirical investigations was carried out and form the basis of this report, and the following question became the focal point of this investigation:

IS CAI MORE EFFECTIVE THAN TRADITIONAL TEACHER-DIRECTED INSTRUCTION FOR TEACHING READING?

To investigate this question, an extensive search of the literature was conducted which included these principal data bases: Dissertation Abstracts, British Education Index, USA Education Index, and Education Resources in Education (ERIC).

Summary Generalized Reading Achievement

Twenty-nine generalized reading studies have been reported. CAI appeared to be more effective 10 of 29 cases. Only 3 studies favored the controls, but 11 studies reported equal results, and in 5 cases, the results were mixed. For overall reading achievement, CAI demonstrated superior achievement 34.5% of the time over traditional instruction. While this percentage was considerably less than 50% (perhaps the lowest criterion of superiority one should consider), it was the highest per cent for CAI among all the categories. The conclusion was that CAI was at least as effective as traditional instruction, and in over a third of the cases, CAI was more effective. These results seem consistent over all instructional grade levels. While these results are somewhat promising, more studies would have to be done before CAI could be validated as more effective than traditional instruction.

Summary Phonics Achievement

The studies reported on CAI phonics achievement revealed that four of eight studies favored CAI over traditional teaching strategies, two were equal, and two had mixed results. Interestingly, the four studies favoring CAI groups were all elementary level students. The conclusion is that CAI is an effective instructional procedure for teaching sound/symbol relationships especially with elementary age children, but it is not necessarily superior to traditional instruction.

Summary of Vocabulary Improvement

In the seven studies reported, only the two Deaf CAI groups exceeded the controls, as noted in Table 2. In both cases involving deaf students, CAI appeared to contribute to higher reading achievement. In two studies, the CAI and controls were equal, and in two studies, the controls vocabulary achievement exceeded the CAI groups. On the basis of these results, it appears that CAI holds no advantage for teaching vocabulary to students with the possible exception of deaf students.

Evaluating the Effectiveness of Writing to Read

Write to Read was used in 13 studies reported. CAI yielded better results than controls in 6 cases, and controls produced higher scores than CAI in 2 studies. Additionally, experimental and control groups were equal 5 times. Clearly WTR is effective in teaching reading, but its superiority in providing higher test scores is unproven. Since the results are ambiguous, other evaluators' comments might be helpful.

Freyd and Lytle (1990) examined WTR for kindergartners and first graders from four perspectives, one of which was on its effectiveness. Their conclusion was that costs outweigh learning benefits and educators should reconsider purchasing this program.

In a rebuttal to Freyd and Lytle, Nelms (1990) stated that she believes the research results were misinterpreted and that in her opinion, WTR helps kindergartners and first graders produce stories they would not otherwise be able to produce.

Krendl and Williams (1990) evaluated the WTR studies and drew this conclusion:

> The question of whether WTR is more effective than traditional methods of teaching reading and writing remains unanswered--results are mixed across studies. However, the reports generally agree that WTR is less effective for first-graders than kindergartners for both reading and writing. (p. 82)

Slavin (1991) reviewed the evaluations of WTR and concluded

> ... At most, Writing to Read is a very expensive means of producing modest and short-lived improvements in the reading test scores of kindergarten students, and even these effects may well be due to comparisons of WTR with kindergartens in which reading is not taught. (p. 10)

Reviewing the research and others' evaluations of the research data, it appears that the WTR program obtains mixed results for both reading and writing. WTR performs about as well as traditional strategies for kindergartners, first and second grade students' reading and writing development. It is a usable program for initial reading instruction with kindergarten or first grade students. However, the investment is considerable. Since WTR does not generate better achievement results than traditional instructional practices, it seems logical that the costliness of WTR would weigh its purchase.

Summary and Conclusions

The results of CAI studies related to reading are not as plentiful as one would like. Caution must be exercised, for there is legitimate concern about the novelty aspect of using computers for reading instruction and, of course, the Hawthorne effect can not be discounted as almost none of the investigators alluded to controlling this variable. More investigations would help clarify this point. Additionally, there is every likelihood that a number of studies have not been reported in the literature, particularly those which found no differences between experimental and control groups. Nevertheless, the evidence collected so far provides a reasonable base for meeting the purpose of this report which was to present information about the efficacy of computers relative to reading instruction. Thus, the following questions were developed to clarify the findings.

Can the computer be the instructor of reading without a live teacher? Yeager's PLATO experiment in the classroom proved to him that any new innovation has to be integrated into the existing classroom structure. Since Yeager's report, no others have been found who were suggesting the contrary.

Which reading skills or strands are best taught by the computer? Apparently CAI can be used equally well in teaching various skills and strands, at least for those aspects that have been reported. Whether CAI is used to teach phonics, vocabulary, comprehension, or general reading achievement; it is at least as effective as traditional instruction.

Is CAI more effective with particular students? Some studies indicated that CAI appeared to work more effectively for slower, disadvantaged, and below grade level readers than for average or above average readers. Exceptional students seem to work well with CAI. LD students learned from CAI instruction, but the evidence does not clearly support CAI as more effective than traditional instruction. However, in the case of deaf students, CAI seems to be advantageous in promoting higher reading achievement.

Is CAI more effective than traditional teacher-directed instruction for teaching reading? While CAI outperformed controls more often than controls bestead the CAI groups, there were frequent ties and mixed results. Thus, there is insufficient evidence to justify the conclusion that CAI is more effective than traditional teacher directed instruction.

Can computer assisted instruction have a positive effect on reading achievement? The answer is yes. CAI has been effective as an instructional medium in the surveyed studies. However, CAI does not appear to be clearly superior to traditional instructional practices for teaching generalized reading ability, phonics, vocabulary, and comprehension.

How about *Write to Read*? Among evaluators *WTR* has its supporters and detractors. There is no question that *WTR* yields inconsistent gains and it has not been demonstrated to be superior to traditional instruction. What is uncontested among educators is that *WTR* is costly. If cost effectiveness is the overriding principle governing whether or not *WTR* is purchased, then buying *WTR* would be hard to justify. On the other hand, if computers and the *WTR* program are available, why not use them to deliver the code which every student needs as *WTR* has been demonstrated as being effective in teaching beginning reading skills?

Before purchasing WTR or any other technology, decision makers might ask these four questions. Will teachers willingly use the technology? Will the technology save teachers time and or energy? Do teachers have room libraries of three to five hundred books? Are there other pressing instructional needs? Four yeses would indicate a "Go!"

At this particular moment in computer assisted instruction history, it is safe to say that CAI is a viable supplement to traditional reading instructional practices, and the future is promising. In fact, Stephen (1988) considers the educational technology race as just the beginning. The marvels of these advances continually unfold in a never-ending-process. As an example, a recent milestone in computer development has profound implications for educators and students. The single optical disc can contain complete sets of encyclopedia. Optical discs and artificial intelligence will provide technological advances for classroom computer use now and into the 21st century. The reality of what computers can do today would have been unthinkable only a few years ago when microcomputers were introduced to the education world. Few, if any, can envision what educational computer technology holds for the 21st Century, but the odds are that the reading teacher will still be needed.

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The Andis Integrated Instructional Strategies Framework for Developing Thematic Units

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While thematic teaching is appealing to many, the lack of a systematic way to develop the units and plan effective lessons has slowed widespread use. The Andis Integrated Instructional Strategies Framework was developed to address the need for creating effective thematic unit lessons which incorporate reading and writing in the content areas. The underlying tenet is that an instructional framework, like a constitution for citizens of a nation, empowers teachers to make sound decisions about the material they are teaching and about their students' needs.

The concept of a thematic unit is not new (Davis, 1990). Teaching with experience-based units was part of the progressive education movement in the early 1900s which was exemplified in the work of John Dewey (Ozman & Craver, 1981). A thematic unit revolves around a theme that is worthy of exploration and problem solving. The cornerstone of an effective thematic unit is the culminating project which needs to be a real-life investigation or exploration. For thematic units to be powerful learning units, they must have well-developed lessons over time that interconnect and relate ideas and skills. To achieve what I call relational thinking, the Andis Framework has a thinking focus on learning through patterning (Caine & Caine, 1991), although a different type of patterning is the emphasis in each lesson stage.

The Andis Integrated Instructional Strategies Framework is divided into the three lesson stages of Into, Through, and Beyond. The three stages may be presented all in one class period or spread over several days. The teacher is free to present the strategies in whatever approach is best suited to the needs of the learners and to her or his teaching style. In each stage, the teacher should select only one strategy and teach it by choosing one teaching technique under that strategy and one activity under the chosen technique. The activities are open-ended so that the teacher may add other appropriate activities. Many activities can be turned into worksheets (Kuhrt & Farris, 1990; Peresich, Meadows, & Sinatra, 1990; Sinatra, Beaudry, Stahl-Gemake, & Guastello, 1990).

ANDIS INTEGRATED INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES FRAMEWORK

Lesson Stage 1: INTO the Information

Thinking Focus: Patterning by CATEGORIZING
Language Focus: Three Schema Building Strategies (Anderson, 1985; Vygotsky, 1978)

Instructional Strategy: Building Prior Knowledge
___Teaching Technique: Reading Related-Literature Aloud or Watching Video Clips or Brainstorming
    Activities: K-W-L Charts, Webs, Flowcharts, _____
___Teaching Technique: Visualizing
    Activities: Timelines, Maps, Graphic Organizers, ____
___Teaching Technique: Previewing
    Activities: Overviews, Demonstrations, Bulletin Boards, Story Dramas, _____

Instructional Strategy: Building Concepts
___Teaching Technique: Brainstorming and Discussing
    Activities: Listing, Webs, Diagrams, _____
___Teaching Technique: Visualizing
    Activities: Concept Webs, Feature Analysis Grids, ____
___Teaching Technique: Using Concepts in Writing
    Activities: Poetry, Original Stories, _____

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Format Instruction [Optional]

Format instruction is essential each time a new genre or writing domain or model is introduced in the instructional material. It is important to the pragmatic cueing system.

Instructional Strategy: Framing the Presentation of Knowledge and Ideas
___Teaching Technique: Reading Aloud or Showing Models
    Activities: Examples of Genre, Examples of Writing Domains, Models, _____
___Teaching Technique: Visualizing
    Activities: Genre Elements Grids, Writing Frames, Story Boards, _____
___Teaching Technique: Modeling Thinking or Demonstrating Process
    Activities: Think Alongs, Language Experience, ____
___Teaching Technique: Defining Audience, Setting Purposes
    Activities: Advanced Organizers, Structured Overviews, ____

Lesson Stage 2: THROUGH the Information

Thinking Focus: Patterning by COMPARING & CONTRASTING
Language Focus: One Proficiency Strategy and One Comprehension Strategy (Goodman & Burke, 1980; Goodman, Watson, & Burke, 1987; Pearson & Johnson, 1978)

Instructional Strategy: Initiating and Sampling, Predicting, and Confirming by Using Language Cueing Systems [A Language Proficiency Strategy]

___Teaching Technique: Using the 4 Reading Cueing Systems Interactively
Activities: Reading Guides, Modeling, Think Alongs, ___
___Teaching Technique: Using the Pragmatic Cueing System to Define Audience and Set Purposes
Activities: Advanced Organizers, Structured Overviews, _____
___Teaching Technique: Using the Graphophonic Cueing System
Activities: Cloze Procedure, Decoding Procedures, Spelling, _____
___Teaching Technique: Using the Syntactic Cueing System
Activities: Predictable Materials, Referent Pronouns, Transition Words, _____
___Teaching Technique: Using the Semantic Cueing System
Activities: Vocabulary Study, Written Predictions, Defining Cultural Concerns, ____

Instructional Strategy: Integrating the Ideas, Information and Knowledge Presented in the Instructional Material [A Language Comprehension Strategy]

___Teaching Technique: Relating Ideas or Making Connections
Activities: Metaphors, Analogies, Comparisons, Like/Not Like Charts, _____
___Teaching Technique: Visualizing and Making Mental Images
Activities: Cartoons, Pictures, Film, Oral and Written Descriptions, _____
___Teaching Technique: Self-Questioning at All Taxonomy Levels
Activities: Study Guides, Reader Guides, SQ3R, Problem Solving Guides, _____
___Teaching Technique: Correcting Misconceptions
Activities: I Used to Think/Now I Know Charts, Debates, Revisions, Persuasive Writing or Discussions, _____

Lesson Stage 3: BEYOND the Information

Thinking Focus: Patterning by EVALUATING & CREATING
Language Focus: Seven Knowledge Expanding Strategies [Bloom, Englehart, Furst, Hill, & Krathwohl, 1956; Bruner, Goodnow, & Austin, 1967; Krathwohl, Bloom, & Bertram, 1964; Pearson & Johnson,1978]

Instructional Strategy: Recalling the Information and Ideas Presented in the Instructional Material

___Teaching Technique: Questioning at the Literal and Inferential Levels
Activities: Comprehension Questions, Data Sheets,___
___Teaching Technique: Retelling
Activities: Story Boards, Story Maps, Writing, ___
___Teaching Technique: Associations (mnemonics)
Activities: Notes, Diagrams, Outlines, Drawings,____

Instructional Strategy: Generalizing the Information and Ideas Presented in the Instructional Material

___Teaching Technique: Drawing Conclusions
Activities: Moving from concrete to abstract, Comparison Charts, ______
___Teaching Technique: Identifying Main Ideas
Activities: Issues, Defining Problems, _____
___Teaching Technique: Distinguishing Fact, Fiction, and Opinion
Activities: Like/Not Like Charts, Interactive Discussions, ____

Instructional Strategy: Summarizing the Information and Ideas Presented in the Instructional Material

___Teaching Technique: Writing at the Inferential Level
Activities: 5 Ws, Learning Logs, Response Journals, _____
___Teaching Technique: Conceptualizing
Activities: Concept Attainment, Checklists, Charts, Diagrams, _____
___Teaching Technique: Presenting in an Alternate Form
Activities: Dramatization, Storytelling, Poetry,___

[Continued on the following page]

Instructional Strategy: Evaluating or Judging the Information and Ideas Presented in the Instructional Material

___Teaching Technique: Writing at the Evaluative Level
Activities: Point of View, Critiques, Reviews, ____
___Teaching Technique: Discussions at the Evaluative Level
Activities: Interactive Discussions, Probing Questions, Interviews, ____
___Teaching Technique: Assessing and Checking Progress
Activities: Redo, Self-correction, Self-monitoring, Tests, Quizzes, Ratings, Checklists, Cause-Effect Analysis, ____

Instructional Strategy: Solving Problems with the Information and Ideas Presented in the Instructional Material

___Teaching Technique: Problem Solving Processes
Activities: Formula, Scientific Method, Inductive & Deductive Procedures, Analyzing & Synthesizing Data, Hypothesizing, Proving, Sequenced Procedures, _____
___Teaching Technique: Generating Alternatives
Activities: Drawings, Comparison Charts, Writing Alternate Endings, _____
___Teaching Technique: Applying Solutions
Activities: Projects and Models, Reports, Charts or Graphs of Results, _____

Instructional Strategy: Appreciating or Valuing the Information and Ideas Presented in the Instructional Material

___Teaching Technique: Responding
Activities: Performing, Role-playing, Personal Response Journals, _____
___Teaching Technique: Valuing
Activities: Practicing, Studying, Codes of Ethics, Setting Goals, Sharing, Gifts, _____
___Teaching Technique: Enjoying
Activities: Celebrating, Humor, Ceremonies, Honors, Awards, Entertaining, _____

Instructional Strategy: Creating Knowledge or Going Beyond the Information and Ideas Presented in Instructional Material

___Teaching Technique: Creating Works in the Fine Arts or Programs in the Recreational and Leisure Arts
Activities: Original Art or Dance or Music, Designing Exercise and Sport Programs, _____
___Teaching Technique: Creating Writing or Hands-on Projects or Exhibits or Inventions
Activities: Original Writing, Creating Products, Displays, Designing Models, _______
___Teaching Technique: Speaking or Presenting or Dramatizing
Activities: Original Skits and Plays, Debates, Productions and Speeches, _____

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WHAT DO LITERACY TEACHERS NEED TO KNOW ABOUT LANGUAGE?

What do literacy teachers need to know about the structure or patterns of language?

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> A child doesn't need to know any linguistics in order to use language to learn, but a teacher needs to know some linguistics if he wants to understand how the process takes place - or what is going wrong when it doesn't. (Harste, 1984).

Introduction

An ongoing concern of mine is the nature and structure of teacher education programs, specifically literacy teacher education programs. Generally it seems as if most courses are based on collective wisdom and the expertise of the staff at the institution. The courses make implicit assumptions about knowledge bases which student teachers must develop about subject matters, curriculum materials, teaching methods and children's learning. However, as Calderhead (1988, p.58) states 'the processes by which these knowledge bases inform classroom action is both unarticulated and unexamined'.

In literacy education we are becoming much more articulate about what we expect in classroom programs, but I don't believe we have yet addressed satisfactorily how we best help our student teachers become the sort of teacher that can develop and implement such programs. It is very hypocritical and inconsistent for us in teacher education to continue to operate against the principles of language learning that we espouse such as learn by doing, learn through meaningful use of language, learn by taking responsibility for our learning. Therefore we have to structure our tertiary classrooms so we can practise what we preach. Attempts have been made in teacher education to achieve this (Emmitt & Graham, 1990; Furniss, 1990). The pedagogical processes are demonstrated but what do we know about what knowledge should be learned?

In Australia there has been emphasis on classroom practices and children's literature as content for language education courses in teacher education (Furniss, 1990). However if we want to achieve recent aspirations to empower students and teachers, teachers need a sophisticated knowledge of language. Luke (1990) argued that we run the risk of deskilling our teachers if our preservice courses stress efficient classroom methods and techniques with extant curricular programs and not also develop theoretical understandings of language. In traditional classrooms teachers could rely on textbooks for the content of their classes, however, in progressive classrooms teachers work from students' needs and interests and hence need the knowledge themselves in order to demonstrate uses of language and give appropriate responses to the students' meaning making attempts. Boomer at a conference in Brisbane in 1991 said that most of our primary and secondary teachers have little language education and generally are not equal to the task of developing critical literacy.

In recent documents there is greater emphasis on students developing an explicit knowledge of language. Halliday (1979) argued that the task of the teacher is to engage students in three kinds of learning: learning of language, learning through language, learning about language. This has been the basis for the curriculum documents in some Australian states (The English Language Frameworks, Victoria, 1988). Herriman (1991, p.337) said "in teaching students to be literate it is necessary to discuss structural aspects of language, but again it is not sufficient for the attainment of literacy". The draft of the National Statement on English for Australian Schools (1991, p.16) states "By learning a language for talking about language students are better able to analyse the linguistic structures and features of texts in relation to their use". To avoid teachers resorting to direct instruction of traditional grammar we need to provide our student teachers with a critical understanding of language and how it is used in our society.

Boomer (1991, p. 40-41) said he would want to ask all new teachers the following questions:

1. Do you have a working, personalised practical theory of teaching/learning?
2. Do you understand how language and thinking interrelate and can you, therefore, devise teaching/learning episodes which enhance thinking and conceptual grasp through the use of language?
3. Whatever you teach, can you explain to your students how language operates in the various 'texts' you and they use and can you teach them how to increase their capacities in producing such texts?
4. Have you a sound grounding in language is use such that you can confidently talk about how various key genres operate and how language functions in different contexts with different purposes and different audiences?
5. Can you demonstrate, yourself, how to produce required texts and analyse how you do it?

In my investigation of what teachers need to know about language there seems to be agreement that teachers need to know about purposes for using language, language variation, how different groups and individuals use language, dialects and registers, how children learn language, factors and processes involved in language learning, the reading and writing processes etc. However there is very little stated about what teachers need to know about the structure of language. It appears that it has been assumed that as proficient users of language, teachers had sufficient knowledge of language. But as proficient users of language we usually have an implicit knowledge of language. Recently there has been great emphasis in school programs on developing children's abilities to read a range of texts and to write for a range of purposes using different genres. Understanding how texts work is therefore critical. Our linguistic understanding of texts, however is only recent (Martin, 1985) so we can not expect teachers and student teachers to have this knowledge.

Explicit knowledge of language, therefore is necessary if appropriate responses are to be given and if as Boomer wants, teachers can explain how different texts work. Teacher education has to take responsibility for developing such knowledge.

In a very recent report on preservice literacy teacher education (Christie, 1991, available May 1992) it is argued that programs for the preservice preparation of teachers to teach English literacy need to develop teachers who are knowledgeable about English language and literacy as a social phenomena, and who are capable of imparting to their students something of the excitement that attaches to thinking about the potential and possibilities of using language and literacy in the late twentieth century. The report argues for critical social literacy for teachers and students in schools and argues that student teachers should be introduced to functional grammar.

Hence I am interested in exploring the following questions:

What explicit knowledge of language structure/patterns do teachers need in order to be effective literacy teachers?How do teachers acquire this knowledge?
What knowledge of language structure/patterns can be learned in preservice teacher education programs?
How we can help student teachers gain this appropriate knowledge?

In Australia primary (elementary) preservice teacher education has been three years post secondary school. It is now becoming a four year program. Our students are generally young and immature, many are unsure about their future as teachers.

What knowledge of language structure/patterns do teachers need?

I questioned practising teachers who were graduate students as to what they believe they need to know to be effective literacy teachers. They found this task to be difficult. Initially they discussed how they need to know how children learn language and then they gave broad responses such as sentence structure, grammar, punctuation, different styles of writing, vocabulary. From my work with teachers and educators and my understanding of current classroom practices I believe the following aspects of language structure are important for teachers to have as explicit knowledge.

- graphophonic relationships for early literacy instruction, for understanding invented spelling, for assisting with word recognition strategies and to avoid giving incorrect information such as the letter 'a' says /ae/.

- the structure of words, the nature of English spelling, word usage, properties of words, the role of words in sentences, for teaching spelling, developing word recognition strategies, developing an awareness and appreciation of how words are used by others and developing children's writing skills;

- the differences between speech and writing, in particular the different types of sentences and other linguistic features;

- sentence structure, different types of sentences for assisting writing development;

- punctuation for reading and writing;

- features of different types of genres and when and how they are used as part of the reading and writing program;

- how texts are organised eg top level structure and text cohesion as part of the reading and writing program, in particular for helping children use language for study purposes.

How can we best develop this knowledge?

To date we have taught brief introductory sessions on linguistics using understandings from a variety of schools of linguistics. We are now beginning to think about using more functional linguistics in our subjects. At this stage I don't believe that we have given sufficient time to developing linguistic knowledge.

Some specific strategies for developing linguistic understandings are:

- workshops on the students' own writing - have students writing for different purposes and discuss the different styles (genres) of writing and highlight the different linguistic features;
- discuss different types of genres, have the students collect samples of children's writing, working with a partner have them categorise the writing and with a highlighter indicate the different linguistic features, and then indicate what aspect of language they might demonstrate or discuss with the child;
- workshops on phonology and morphology (See Emmitt & Pollock, 1991);
- have students examine tapes of children reading and the relevant texts to determine whether there are features in the texts which made the reading difficult;
- have students examine textbooks to determine their 'friendliness' to the reader;
- have students find different types of writing in the newspaper, have them determine the purpose of the article and highlight the top level structure.
- have students collect oral and written samples of the same topic and examine for the differences in linguistic features.

Luke (1991) argues for a foundation subject which focuses on developing understandings of how language works in social contexts. At the James Cook University in Queensland they have developed a subject they describe as being broadly based on 'critical linguistic studies' after Kress (1985) and Fairclough (1989) and draws upon systemic linguistics, the sociology of language and ethnography of communication, and poststructuralist discourse theory. They emphasise how language is used to express and constitute power and ideology in everyday texts and talk. "Through the analysis of popular and academic texts, we attempt to introduce students to aspects of grammar, morphology, semantics, pragmatics, and so forth by showing them how these apparently abstract, esoteric systems figure in popular and educational culture. The subject also introduces students to templates for language change, variation and development, with particular attention to language in Australian migrant and Aboriginal communities." (Luke, (1991, p.51).

The Christie Report (1991) gives two exemplars for primary preservice literacy teacher education which emphasise critical social theory, social learning theory, text in context and functional grammar.

What are your views on what aspects of language structure/patterns should be developed in preservice teacher education programs?
I would be very interested in hearing from anyone who can share their research, experiences and views of language education for teachers. In particular, I would welcome input on what processes and strategies you have used to develop teacher knowledge of language.

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Deconstruction in an ESL Text:

Rewriting Laura in Los Angeles:

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There has long been an uneasy relation between the interests of literacy educators, on one hand, and the theories of text and textuality developed in critical literary studies, on the other. Reading educators have been reluctant to acknowledge the implications and potential of contributions from literary theory to school practice and pedagogy. It took nearly 40 years for reading educators to recognize Rosenblatt's (1938/1983) transaction theories and translate them into practice (Dias, 1991). The now-pervasive influence of reader-response, which owes its existence to Rosenblatt's insights, suggests that other literary theories could repay our attention as well.

Today, it seems a similar fate awaits another, perhaps equally important literary theory. Case-in-point: Deconstruction, the theory of French philospher/linguist Jacques Derrida, about the critical nature of writing and reading literary texts. Derrida's (1976) writings have been an important, continuing influence in literary studies in the United States over more than a decade. However, few reading researchers, teacher educators, or teachers have been aware of the theory and implications of deconstruction. Hence these have been almost wholly absent in many current discussions concerning literacy among the reading community. The present paper is an endeavor to rectify that apparent oversight.

W. Ross Winterowd (1989) asserts that deconstruction has claimed so central a position in recent discussions and studies of literature that "by laws as inexorable as...plate techtonics, [it] will influence the teaching of English for decades to come" (p. x). However, while influences of deconstruction on literary study and teaching have been immense, it has stirred barely a ripple in discourses of literacy education. In light of this regretable situation, our paper represents an effort to introduce and apply critical, deconstructive literary analysis/critique to research and practice in literacy education by deconstructing an instructional text.

In so doing, we heed a reminder by some of deconstruction's most able adherents: "Impossible to freeze conceptually, deconstruction is, above all, an enacted strategy, an interpretive praxis that must be 'seen in action'" (Atkins & Johnson, 1985, p. 2). The scene of the action in this paper is Laura in Los Angeles (Victor, 1984). However, before joining the fray, some words about what deconstruction is about seem to be appropriate. In the next section, we essay to describe what we take to be some of its more salient characteristics.

What is deconstruction, and Why should we care?

Deconstruction is, in Derrida's words, "a sort of strategic device ...[a] not wholly formalizable ensemble of rules for reading, interpretation, and writing" (Crowley, 1989, p. 1). For Derrida and the critics, scholars, and teachers for whom his philosophy has been profoundly influenctial, this ensemble of rules is held to enjoin the reader to interpretive action, rather than to prohibit it. One enacts deconstructive reading upon textual artifacts. It is a critical act, an engagement, one that always already supposes--even seeks and, indeed relies upon--evidence of internal contradictions to conventional, common-sense notions upholding straightforward referentiality in language. Such contradictions may occur even at the level of the particular word.

This position has profound implications for intellectual traditions of the West, including those parts of them which influence the teaching and practice of literacy in schools. Deconstruction, at base, holds that language precedes consciousness. This is a radical notion. It challenges, reverses, and may possibly even erase, the supremacy of "the mind" that has dominated our traditions and relegated language to the status of "mere" tool. It challenges what Derrida refers to as "the metaphysics of presence" (Crowley, p. 2), in which the speaker is privileged over the speech. Thus deconstruction poses a serious problem for theories and practices of reading which locate the center of interpretive authority in either an autonomous reader or author. It seems to deny the possibility of an authoritative reading of a text!

In addition, deconstruction presents a difficult face. Janus-like, full of double (and double-double) reversals and multi-lingual puns, it is written in an argot that is both philosophically formidable and (seemingly) willfully obscure. So it has sometimes seemed to purposefully deflect attention. Its lack of recognition by (often literal-minded) reading researchers and teachers may be due to the enigmatic qualities of the language in which deconstruction is frequently described and practiced. Yet these are the qualities which seem to guarantee their certainty of utterance and interpretation in their own technical discourses.

Still, deconstruction possesses features which ought to commend it to the attention of reading educators. As noted above, it proceeds *strategically*, and thus in principle it comports with the main thrusts of strategic reading for school learning which have dominated reading research and practice at least since Herber (1978). However, since it is "not wholly formalizable," its rules resist the regimentation of scientifically organized strategic reading pedagogy. A deconstructive reading works "playfully." It engages reader and text in the interplay of meaning with the internal, implicit contradictions of meaning that are at the core of language's unfixable figurativity. As Walker Percy (1984) has noted, metaphorical language is troublesome because it "seems to be wrong; it asserts identity between two different things...[it] is wrongest when it is most beautiful" (p. 132). Because all language is metaphorical at some level, deconstruction appropriates this "beautiful" wrongness, and this is what makes it "playful."

Deconstructing *Laura...*:
At "play" in the fields of the word

The text on which we have made our playful, deconstructive reading, *Laura in Los Angeles* (Victor, 1984), is an ESL primer intended for use by non-native English speakers (probably Latino immigrants). The occasion of this text was so completely accidental as to meet any randomness criterion: the book simply appeared in one of the authors' mailbox one day, where none like it had ever appeared before. Our focus on the ESL *situation*, however, is a deliberate, post-hoc, ethnomethodological (Garfinkel, 1967) decision.

Why ESL?: A methodological note. Relations among language, culture, and society in school comprise fertile grounds for deconstructive critique. The logic of foreign-language textbook construction decrees that L2 learning instruction consist in "a knowledge of language and *culture*...of the target language" (Ramirez & Hall, 1990, p. 80; emphasis added). Likewise, principles of socialization through language learning suggest that cultural circumstances portrayed should be exemplary (e.g., Engle & Ochoa, 1988). Thus it would be unexpected and, indeed, remarkable, that texts intended to impart dominant, conventional cultural motifs to exogenous peoples did not provide models of accepted social behaviors and attitudes in ways efficacious and efficient for inducing foreigners to adopt both desirable deportment and dominant folkways.

Yet it is neither efficacy nor efficiency of textual induction practices upon the socialization of immigrants that occupy us hear. Instead, we address the content of the context that frames knowledge of language and culture provided to readers by their textbooks. We enact a critical stance toward reading classroom texts. This comports with teachers' professional ability to know, or at least to possess the means of looking at the complex discursive relations inscribed on and/or implied by often overlooked or taken-for-granted discursive features on textual horizons. It is this ability that deconstructive reading fosters.

Laura: A Faustian parable. Deconstruction may be understood as a way of seeing. Even a quick look at the book yeilds interesting data. Laura in Los Angeles (Victor, 1984) is a slight volume: only 16 full-color pages with cover art, a short glossary, a back-cover teaser to entice the reader to pick it up, and catalogue of other available titles. It purports to require no more than a 300-word vocabulary to read and use instructionally. This presumably means well enough to recognize and emulate "simple present;...present continuous;...future with *going to*;...imperatives... negative statements (not questions or imperatives);...can;...Wh-questions with *what* or *who*," the "Key Learning Items" provided in italics inside the back cover. These features are packaged in a colorful, comic-book style romance, with balloons to convey speech--a style familiar to immigrants from Latin America, where comicbooks are the most frequent, quasi-literary literacy opportunities.

What would a deconstructive reading "see" in even these "facts"? Recalling "the metaphysics of presence," the focus on present tense would be telltale. We read on and, as the story unfolds, we recognize that the relentless present ("continuous") indeed dominates the reader's attention, while erasing the history of the title character. We meet Laura Martinez, an ebullient, pretty, tall, young Latina as she deplanes in Los Angeles. We soon learn she is there to study English because she is "going to" return to her home and become a teacher. Yet we have read the tease: "*A first visit to a city like Los Angeles is always exciting. New faces, new places. But sometimes, something unexpected happens which can change your life...It certainly changes Laura's.*" So it comes as no surprise when, through an emblematic mischance--a mis-reading, in fact--she meets Michael, a handsome young, Anglo photographer.

Love blossoms; she becomes a "famous" (p. 12) model for hair-care products; she becomes fluent. And she ultimately foresakes her original ambition, her family, her home, and her history. Instead, she opts for Hollywood, glamor, love: all accompanied by--and occurring implicitly as a consequence of--her improving fluency.

This romance of language serves as a frame for the instructional meaning in the text: acquiring fluency in idiosyncratic, vernacular, American English idioms (but not reading or writing). A deconstructive reading of the story--the text--suggests that, while technical objectives of instruction may be met, they are contradicted at many points. For example, Michael tells Laura she doesn't even need to go to school (p. 6). Reading into the text in this way offers other meanings, such as "everybody has a price, it's just a matter of haggling." An immigrant Faustina, the whole panoply of bright-light, big-city, all-American consumption is assembled to seduce her: Cadillacs, candle-lit dinners, discos, Disneyland, fame, fortune, life at the beach, love, everything! These are the rewards (or the solaces) of Laura's (and the reader's) fluency. All she has to do is renounce everything she was. These frame and constrain the readers' purposes as they are presented with and to the "target" culture in which the text's real purposes are situated and given cultural meaning and reference.

Summary. This reading has merely skimmed the surface of Laura's textual complexity; it is beyond the scope of this paper to do more. The text is so rife with contradiction that it might occupy this entire volume to deconstructively unpack its import, purport, depths, and dimensions. Still what we have done, we hope, has provided at least a foreshadowing of, what deconstruction could mean in the hands of teachers and educators who would dare to read differently. Deconstructive readings open up and then expand possible universes in which readers may take active parts in making meaningful readings of texts. Such readings address not only what is present but also what is absent in texts, by questioning rhetorical absolutes such as "difference" and "presence" as defining characteristics of meaning. Thus they may provide a lens through which teachers may identify features concealed by and in text. Then, informed by these insights, they may adapt their pedagogies to reveal aspects of the text that they and their students may have been conditioned discursively to take for granted or to ignore. We need not honor only one meaning, one reading, to make meaning meaningfully...

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Ensuring Successful Teaching: Resources and Practices in the Literacy Program

King Merritt, University of Texas at El Paso

Variety truly abounds today in reading materials available to classroom teachers. One has only to visit the exhibitors pavilion during an annual I.R.A. convention and witness over 300 colorfully assorted booths all under one roof. While this is fine for attending conferees who will bring samples of various goodies back home to their colleagues, many others not so priveleged to attend are still left in the dark when new items appear on the market. The problem these teachers face is where to actually find reading materials since many publishing houses seem to be constantly changing ownership. This is especially perplexing for teachers of students with a wide assortment of reading problems in their classes. Where does one turn for help in providing a variety of reading experiences? Some publishers cater to elementary, secondary or ABE or ESL or whatever. Keeping up with all the resources which mirror teaching practices would be more than a full time job for anyone.

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LANGUAGE LEARNING:

AUSTRALIAN AND UNITED STATES PERSPECTIVES

Elinor P. Ross, Tennessee Technological University

No doubt, children can acquire literacy in a variety of ways. In this paper, the focus is on two philosophies for facilitating language learning: traditional instruction consisting of skill-based, part-to-whole teaching, and whole language instruction consisting of authentic, whole-to-part experiences.

Many educators perceive Australian primary school education as basically holistic, whereas they find that many U.S. schools continue to use traditional instruction, despite an apparent increasing interest in whole language. These assumptions do not hold true in all cases. This paper is based on observations of classrooms in eleven rural and urban schools in Victoria, Australia, as well as dozens of elementary classrooms in the United States.

A Rationale for Language Learning

Researchers have proposed various theories of language learning. The behaviorists attempted to apply general theories of learning to language, whereas cognitive researchers believed that each individual constructs a set of rules about language based on exposure to the language. A more recent theory focuses on the kinds of interactions and social contexts the learner uses to make meaning through language (Emmitt and Pollock, 1991.)

The process of learning to speak is acquired naturally as children observe the speech of others and construct their own somewhat imperfect forms of speech (Johnson and Louis, 1987). Observational research indicates that literacy grows naturally from real-life situations at home where reading and writing are used for accomplishing tasks (Ollila and Mayfield, 1992). Many educators believe that learning to read and write at school should proceed in the same naturalistic way (Altwerger, Edelsky, and Flores, 1987; K. Goodman, 1986; Holdaway, 1979; Lamme, 1987; McCracken and McCracken, 1987; and Weaver, 1990).

As they enter school, most children possess a great deal of knowledge about the uses of print. They experiment with speech, understand many of the purposes for reading and writing, can identify some words, and can reproduce or create recognizable word forms. These children have a sense of empowerment, or control, over literacy in their own lives (Fagan, 1989). They think of themselves as readers and writers, but they are also aware of their limitations and their need to constantly modify their understanding and use of language (McInnes, 1986).

Teachers should assist in continuing, not disrupting, children's growth in literacy. Too few kindergarten and first grade teachers consider what children already know about literacy (Y. Goodman, 1990). Teachers must understand children's purposes for reading and writing and provide activities that the children understand from their out-of-school experiences (Fagan, 1989).

Children who have been using situational and contextual clues for getting meaning from print, i.e., identifying words as labels for real objects or words in picture storybooks, are often confused by skill sheets and flash cards where meaning is not readily apparent. Likewise, children who must simply fill in blanks for writing tasks are denied the opportunity for purposeful self-expression (McInnes, 1986). Allowing children to experience whole stories instead of drilling them on individual sound-symbol relationships helps them realize that reading and writing are pleasurable, meaning-producing events.

In defining appropriate practice for beginning readers, the National Association for the Education of Young Children supports this holistic concept by stating that children should have many opportunities to see the value of reading and writing before they are taught letter names, sounds, and word identification. When basic skills are useful and meaningful, children will acquire them naturally (Bredekamp, 1987). Thus, views of literacy as set forth here indicate that natural, holistic learning is more meaningful and useful to the language learner than is a skill-oriented approach.

Education in Australian and United States Schools

Because school systems vary within each of the two countries, any comparisons or contrasts apply only to schools observed for this study. There is no attempt to generalize about language instruction for all of the schools in either country.

A recent study (Berglund, Raffini, and McDonald, 1992) attempted to replicate a study conducted 15 years ago that compared the instructional beliefs and practices of second and third grade teachers in selected schools in Australia and the United States. The current study found both similarities and differences between the two countries. U.S. and Australian teachers showed similar orientations toward control (teacher-directed) versus autonomy (child-governed). In both countries, teachers showed high levels of information-giving and controlling behaviors. There were also similarities in the amount of praise teachers gave (more than in the previous study) and the amount of on-task or functional student behaviors (also an increase over the earlier study).

In the same study, observers noted that teachers in both countries often divided their classes into three reading groups. U.S. children were often reading from basal readers, however, whereas Australian children were often engaging in shared book experiences and receiving instruction from big books. Differences in independent work were also observed, with U.S. students completing workbook pages or worksheets and Australian students participating in more meaningful and varied activities. These activities included writing, re-reading big books, reading with teaching assistants or parent helpers, listening to tapes, and reading into tape recorders.

My own observations support the belief that language learning in Australian schools is more holistic than in schools in the United States. Part-to-whole instruction is often the rule in U.S. classrooms because many teachers believe that children must indeed learn the skills for reading and writing before they actually read and write. U.S. children complete worksheets and workbook pages during morning work, whereas their Australian counterparts are busy reading and writing for authentic purposes much of the time. They write directions for waxing leaves, reports on a study of lenses, recounts of experiences, directions for board games, letters to an author, poems for the poetry tree, or booklets to give to other children (all observed). Reading and writing seem to be part of everything that occurs in the classroom throughout the day.

Not only does instruction seem to be more holistic in Australian classrooms, but so is scheduling. In the United States, lesson plans consist of discrete subjects plugged neatly into narrow time slots. On the other hand, many Australian lessons consist of large blocks of time devoted to language, maths, or art. Such time blocks allow flexibility and teacher discretion in using teachable moments, extending some lessons, and cutting back on others.

Believing that language learning occurs best in social contexts, Australian teachers encourage children to work together. This cooperative setting occurs both within and across grade levels. Older children guide younger ones in their attempts at reading and writing, or students with similar abilities work cooperatively on projects. In contrast, many U.S. teachers insist that children "do their own work" and not talk to each other during work time.

Instead of sending low achieving readers to resource or Chapter rooms as in the United States, Australian schools employ integration aides to work with poor readers within the classroom, except in the Reading Recovery program. Since language learning is a social event, keeping children in the classroom with their friends may be a more natural way for them to learn than to send them out of the room for special instruction.

In Australian schools, children read almost entirely from trade books or engage in shared big book reading. Basal readers are still prevalent in many U.S. classrooms, although there appears to be a trend toward literature-based instruction.

Spelling instruction in U.S. schools often consists of a list of words from a spelling book and follows a daily schedule ending with a Friday test. In Australian schools, however, students and teachers often generate lists from themes they are studying, from misspelled words in journals, or from words children want or need to know.

Writing instruction in the United States consists primarily of spelling and handwriting lessons with some opportunities for creative writing. In Australia, the focus now appears to be on genre writing, in which children learn to use different types of writing for authentic purposes. Genres include recount, narrative, report, persuasion, explanation, procedural text, and fiction writing (Wing Jan, 1991).

Classrooms observed in Australia contained walls covered with varied, individualized children's writing and art, student-dictated charts and posters, and thematic displays. Such displays provided reminders of information learned and developed high self-esteem among students. In contrast, U.S. classrooms offer little original student work; instead, displays often consist of teacher-selected commercial materials, well-done handwriting and test papers, or nearly identical art work.

Teacher interaction is also a contributing factor to language learning. Soo Hoo (1990) stressed the need for teachers to have time during school hours several times a week to reflect, discuss, plan, evaluate curriculum, and exchange philosophies and values. In the United States, teachers are likely to plan and implement instruction on an individual basis, partly because they lack opportunities to interact with other teachers. Australian teachers, on the other hand, have one or two daily "tea-time" breaks when they can exchange ideas. Many also have built-in planning times and/or scheduled after school meetings to share ideas and resources.

Personal observations support the widely-held belief that most Australian primary teachers follow whole language philosophy to a greater extent than do teachers in the United States. Because recent research in language learning appears to support whole language instruction, teachers in both countries may wish to apply the whole language philosophy.

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One week in Rio: A descriptive model for international literacy inservice.

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Abstract

This case study will present the development, implementation, and evaluation of an international reading seminar offered by Bowling Green State University reading faculty in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, during January, 1991. This seminar was offered for teachers employed by the American schools in Brazil. Sixty-four teachers attended this seminar - representing nine different American-international schools in seven cities. The major topics of the whole language seminar included comprehension theory, vocabulary development, the writing process and writers' workshop, integrated teaching, assessment, and program development. Participants reported a great deal of satisfaction with the topics offered and the expertise of the presenters. Suggestions were made for future inservice programs of this type. Based on these suggestions and the reflections of the presenters, this article provides a response to a model for inservice education, in light of the particular needs and dimensions of international schools.

Introduction

The purpose of the present case study is to present an overview of a week-long staff development project conducted at Our Lady of Mercy School in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, January 21-25, 1991. The inservice project was conducted by professors in reading/language arts from Bowling Green State University in Bowling Green, Ohio. These professors were Michael P. French, Marcia A. Rybczynski, and Daniel A. Tutolo. The participants were 64 teachers and other educational personnel from nine different international schools in Brazil. In all, seven different Brazilian cities were represented (See Figure 1). These international schools are private/independent schools that serve dependents of embassy, business, and other expatriate personnel overseas. Although children of many nationalities are enrolled in these schools, the language of instruction is English.

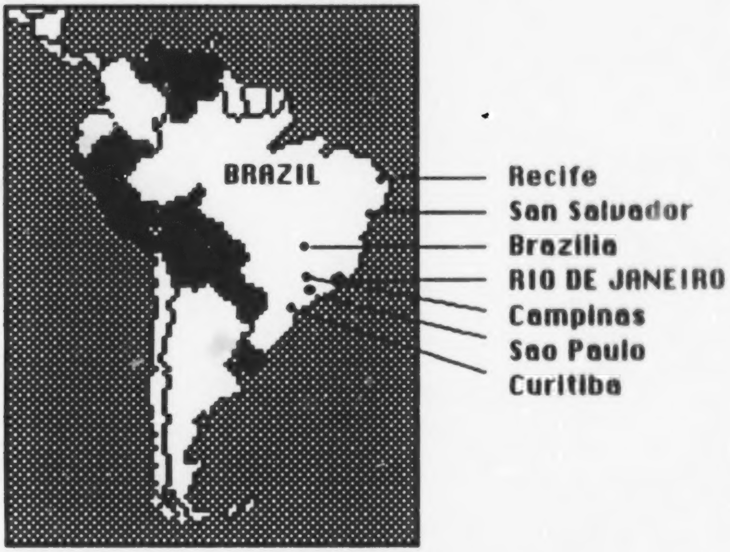

Figure 1: Locations of participants' schools in Brazil.

The project was the result of planning and negotiation which began at Bowling Green State University in Fall, 1990. This was made possible because a lead teacher (Eliane Falcoa Araujo) from Our Lady of Mercy school was enrolled at Bowling Green. When this graduate student returned to Brazil, she was able to establish a local network of contacts and seek local corporate funding for the project. The major corporate sponsors were IBM Brasil, Atala X Atala, and Hoteis Othon. These sponsors provided funding for plane fares, living accommodations, and per diem expenses for the presentation team.

The two major objectives for the project (as stated in the local summary report) were as follows:

1. To offer the staff of the host school and other interested teachers and professionals an intensive week of study about whole language and its application in foreign American schools. Specific focal points included:
   - a. informing teachers about whole language.
   - b. motivating teachers toward change.
   - c. bringing together teachers from other American schools to discuss teaching of reading.

d. offering a solid theoretical basis for whole language, together with practical applications.

2. To initiate a process where this type of teacher training would be ongoing, whether for Our Lady of Mercy staff alone or in conjunction with professionals from other American schools in Brazil.

In addition to these local objectives, participants were polled on their reasons for attending the seminar and the major educational challenges they faced in their international classrooms. The results of this sample are presented in Figure 2.

Reasons for Attending

1. Learn about whole language
2. Integrate the language arts
3. Explore current issues and approaches
4. Learn about reading and writing
5. Learn about assessment
6. Professional development opportunities
7. Professional motivation
8. Opportunities to exchange ideas

Major Challenges

1. Assessment of students
2. Motivation (using books and language)
3. Writing process and products
4. Needs and demands of ESL learners
5. Integrating whole language instruction
6. Providing for professional growth
7. Other factors: Behavior, computers, problem solving

Figure 2: Responses of participants to introductory poll

The project was initially organized around a five-day program including both morning and afternoon sessions at Our Lady of Mercy School in Rio de Janeiro. Each session was facilitated by one of the three presenters, with the others assisting. The sessions included lectures, exercises, large and small group discussions, practice lessons, and hands-on activities. Time was also scheduled for group questions and interaction with the presenters. Topics included: current issues in literacy, comprehension and vocabulary strategies, oral language development, integrated instruction, the writing process, and portfolio assessment. As the sessions progressed, adaptations were also made to better meet the needs of the participants, who requested more information on the assessment of literacy skills, and the process of classroom transition toward integrated and whole language approaches.

The overall evaluation of the week was favorable. Participants were asked to respond to two basic questions using a nine-point scale (9 high and 1 low). The quality of the presentations was rated at 8.13 with a range of 6 to 9. Comments on the presenters centered on their "expert" knowledge and their very good teaching skills. The participants also mentioned that the presenters' human relations skills were a key factor contributing to the success of the seminar. Several participants suggested that the practical aspects of whole language should have been emphasized more.

The overall quality of the seminar was rated at 8.02 with a range of 5 to 9. Participants stated that their motivation to teach was rekindled, and that follow-up meetings would be an excellent idea. The question of more practical items was brought up again, with requests for more group work, and opportunities for teachers to share experiences and ideas.

Participants were also asked to provide additional comments. Many requested more seminars, either on a six-month or yearly basis. Some requested that the site of the meeting rotate from school to school. A suggestion was made that a Brazilian whole language newsletter be created among the American schools in Brazil. Teachers also expressed the desire to visit successful whole language classrooms.

Discussion

Generally, it was the consensus of the presenters and the local arrangement team that this seminar was a success. A great deal was learned, however, about providing inservice development on an international scope. For example, we learned that popular English-language trade books and professional texts might not be readily available. We also learned that making 20 extra copies of a handout was not always possible in situations with time constraints. Despite these challenges and the differences in teaching situations, what was most important to us is that these teachers from international schools in South America shared many of the same concerns of their North American counterparts. Likewise, they were also highly motivated by their love for children and a dedication to professionalism.

Given our experiences and reflections, we have considered both universal principles for staff development , as well as the particulars of effectively structuring inservices for teachers in international schools. Accordingly, we would like to present a model for effective inservice education developed by Lawrence (1980). We found these guidelines to be useful ones, and we responded to them based on what we learned about the particular needs of teachers in international schools.

Building a Model for Effective International Inservice Provision

The following guidelines are based on research on effective inservice education (Lawrence, 1980). Our response follows each principle.

1. *Teachers should be effectively involved in initiating, planning and conducting the program.*

   Local resources (international teachers and graduate students) are critical to planning. Use needs assessment surveys as necessary. Allow for lots of lead time to handle problems with international mail.

2. *The program should be designed as a collective effort of faculty with common purposes.*

   Early in the planning process identify the target audience. Be very clear as to what will and will not be addressed in the program.

3. *The program should be funded such that teachers and administrators are sponsors who design activities and select inside and outside leadership personnel.*

   A local arrangement team is critical to the success of the program. This team can help with everything from finding appropriate restaurants for participants to dealing with specific needs of the inservice program.

4. *The program should be scheduled at times that complement and do not compete with other professional obligations.*

   Our program was effectively scheduled just before the summer school term began in February. This allowed the excitement of the inservice to be carried over into teachers' classrooms.

5. *The program should be planned with diverse program patterns that emphasize teacher responsibility.*

   We found that both large group and small group patterns of organization with lots of opportunity for group interaction and discussion were effective. This is especially critical where participants come from different geographical regions.

6. *The program should involve participants in active roles.*

   When setting up groups for interaction, the inservice providers should act as facilitators as much as possible.

7. *The program should be planned with sequences which allow participants to try out new techniques and receive feedback.*

   If time allows, programs can be scheduled to meet in actual classrooms with children, or children can be brought to the inservice to participate in demonstration lessons. Where this is not possible, simulated micro-teaching lessons may be substituted.

8. *Although our program had leaders who were linked with a university, other professionals who are concerned with professional development should be included.*

   In addition to higher education faculty, graduate students, classroom teachers, consultants, and administrators, can be engaged in the inservice development plan.

9. *The program should have opportunities for participants to see demonstrations of exemplary practices.*

   As indicated above, demonstration and practice lessons can be incorporated into the inservice program. In addition, videotapes or other visual media can be used to illustrate exemplary practices.

10. *The program should not rely on lecture presentations as the main activity.*

    In the inservice program described in this paper, lectures played a part of the information giving sessions. Small group activities and discussions were also incorporated into the plan. Inservice programs may include time for sustained silent reading and writing as ways to model theory and practice.

11. *The program should be conducted at a school site.*

    The program in Rio de Janeiro was held at a school site. It may sometimes be difficult to hold a professional meeting at a school, depending on the numbers involved. Also, inservice providers should be prepared to deal with various environmental factors.

12. *The program should provide participants with relevant printed materials.*

    Even though printed material adds weight to baggage and shipping, pre-bound printed handouts may be the best course for international inservice. Inservice providers may find that obtaining large numbers of copies on the spot may be difficult in some locations. Bound handbooks should include copies of overhead visuals as well as resource and practice materials. In addition, copies of trade books (in English) can serve as good resources.

Resource:

Lawrence, G. P. (1980). Patterns of effective inservice education. (Report No. ED 176424). Tallahassee, FL: Florida Department of Education.

Promises for World Understanding through International Children's Books

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Through the reading of children's literature, people from all corners of the world can share the same human condition. This is especially true of children who are more receptive as they do not carry the accumulated baggage of prejudice. International children's books provide a broad picture of the lives and challenges of various individuals in diverse societies. Readers can identify with characters from different cultures, gaining respect and appreciation for customs other than their own. Through books children can grow in their understanding of other people and value their commonality as well as their differences and diversities. Through the reading of good international books people especially children "develop a social sensitivity to the needs of others and realize that people have similarities as well as differences" (Norton, 1990).

As university professors, we face the challenge of an ever changing curriculum and we must expose teachers and future teachers to the idea of a rapidly changing world and the importance of developing a global perspective. When teaching undergraduate and graduate classes, we need to be sensitive to the materials and research we use in our courses, especially the reading methods courses. The materials used should reflect an understanding of the cultural heritage of the local community as well as all the people of the world. The use of international children's books could spice up story telling and story reading. Children's books used in Whole Language, Literature-base, and/or theme curriculums should reflect the international world in which we live. Modeling should include quality favorite books as well as new international children's books which depict other cultures in a realistic and positive manner as teachers and especially pre-student teachers, tend to use the materials which are shown in the university classroom. What a nice way of spreading the "good news" concerning quality international children's books!

The Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (ASCD) has a two-year global education pilot project underway in fifteen elementary schools across this country. Susan Nicklas reports that educators in these schools want their instruction to reflect "how multicultural and interdependent the entire world is becoming" (Update, 1992). The Education Development Committee of UNICEF Ontario, Canada, through their writing project produced Children's Literature: Springboard to Understanding the Developing World, an integrated curriculum support document intended for grades 3 to 8 (Diakiw, 1990). Diakiw writes that current research indicates "not only that elementary children are developmentally ready for a global perspective, but that this may be the more appropriate age at which to introduce it." His study of the research indicated that young children up to the ages of 10 to 13 are inclined to positive thinking concerning people from another country; after age 14, however, attitudes formed about people from other countries are somewhat negative. Teachers must be excited about learning/teaching international respect and appreciation of all people including those outside their own surroundings. Children's books can be a powerful device for gaining an understanding of a world sometimes far removed from the students' own reality and beliefs (Norton, 1990). Diakiw stated it in this way. "Children's books are a powerful media for understanding the world."

Professors and teachers know the benefits of reading books to children but recently storytelling has been gaining more momentum. The importance of doing storytelling and of knowing oral storytelling traditions is necessary in today's elementary schools. Storytellers can bring the outside world, the entire globe, into the classroom. They can expose children to previously little known cultures and explain the similarities and differences of the people. The teacher also should provide background information when students appear surprised or baffled at something heard or read that is not within their experiences. There is nothing more exciting than listening to a story whose characters call to a reader, "Come in, take a walk in my shoes, see how my feelings are like yours" (Galda, 1991).

Tucker & Cistone (1991) state that developing a global perspective in teacher education programs has been slow even though rapid global changes would appear to support such a position. "Global education stems from the premise that information and knowledge about the rest of the world must be used to better understand ourselves and our relationships to other people, cultures, and nations" (Tucker & Cistone, 1991). Developing and nourishing human resources is the responsibility and duty of teacher education. In today's world, education depends on our ability to contribute to the improvement of the world's economy and the human condition. Helping teachers improve the world through children's books and reading is one of the highest purposes in teacher education. Therefore global perspectives in teacher education should be an urgent priority.

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International Children's Books

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Bos, B. (21990) *Price Valentino*. Ill. Nans de Beer. New York: North-South. (The Netherland)

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GLOBAL EDUCATION THROUGH LITERATURE-BASED THEME UNITS

By Maribeth Henney, Iowa State University

A major component found in many whole language classrooms is the use of literature-based theme units which involve an in-depth study of various children's books focused on a particular topic.

After an introduction to the unit area of study, the teacher may read one or more books to get the students involved with the topic, and to build some common background for future class discussions and activities. Students will then read additional books and other sources about the topic. It may be expected that all children read all of the books or they may read different ones which they will later share with the whole class. At appropriate points, students may do related activities to apply and extend their learning. These may involve the other language arts through discussion, drama, writing, oral reading, arts and crafts, etc. Application of ideas is tied to study in the content areas as well, integrating all language arts skills with social studies, science, and other academic areas. It is important that students be given opportunities to explore areas in which they are personally interested. Therefore students will be involved in a variety of learning experiences as well as those completed by the whole class.

The State Department of Education in Iowa established a requirement that global education be incorporated into all areas and levels of the educational program so that students have opportunity to acquire a realistic perspective on world issues, problems, and prospects for an awareness of the relationship between a person's self-interest and the concerns of people elsewhere in the world.

Global citizenship augments and enlarges traditional meanings and visions of citizenship. It involves the recognition that not only are we members and citizens of a particular society, but we are also members of a larger global society of humanity, and have responsibilities that extend to the entire human family.

To help students develop a global perspective, they must be introduced to and become better acquainted with different cultures and their interrelationships. They must be aided in developing a sense of appreciation for the diversity and similarities within the human family. This will involve learning about different aspects of all cultures: their literature, their art, their music, their historical traditions, their languages, their religions, their family life, their social structures, and their contributions to civilization. The study of these aspects of other cultures and their interdependence can and must be integrated into every subject area and grade level in the curriculum.

Five basic themes for global education were recommended by the Department of Education in Iowa (1989). Explanations and possible goals follow:

Global interdependence means mutual dependence--parts of a whole depending on each other. Terms such as spaceship earth and global village acknowledge the fact that humankind is tightly bound and connected together everywhere.

1. To help students recognize the interconnections and consequences of global events to the quality of their own lives.
2. To help students develop a better understanding of themselves as individuals, and as members of the human race.

Human resources, values, and culture included the languages, literature, art, music, traditions, myths, social structures, family life, and religions of the diverse national and cultural groups within the global community. It also includes the human values of individual worth, human dignity, moral and collective responsibility, integrity, justice, and equality.

1. To help students understand that we are enriched rather than diminished by respecting those who have different customs, languages, and belief systems.
2. To help students understand the relationships between ethnic, religious, and nationalistic loyalties and the development of a global perspective.

The global environment and natural resources include the life-giving atmosphere, water and soil, earth's forests, minerals, and fossil fuels, and the delicate balance of the entire environment.

1. To help students understand the interconnectedness of the human community, the global environment, and our finite natural resources.

2. To help students identify life-long methods to preserve our natural resources.

Global peace and conflict management addresses the development of strategies to teach conflict resolution as a process, and reflects on areas such as war destruction and survival, poverty, starvation, disease, illiteracy, and human rights issues.

1. To help students develop, apply, and evaluate alternative methods of conflict resolution.
2. To help students realize that efforts to bring about global cooperation on common issues must be preceded by understanding the constraints and conflicts engendered by national loyalties.

Change and alternative futures provides a forward-looking focus. Rapid change is well-documented. Developing and understanding of elements of global change and those of stability can add to our perspective. This is not to say history is not important, but we can learn from previous efforts and study alternatives for the future. Pro-active thinking enables us to see better goals for tomorrow.

1. To help students realize that human activities often have unintended long-term consequences, as well as intended short-term ones.
2. To help students develop an appreciation for the skills and attitudes that will enable them to continue learning and living on earth.

Students in an undergraduate reading and language arts methods course were informed that they were to develop a literature-based theme unit on one or more of these strands. After an explanation of the meaning of global education and its importance, students were shown the five strands and possible goals for each. An extensive list of unit possibilities was provided but students were encouraged to create their own if they wanted to. The list was by no means exhaustive, but was meant to stimulate their thinking. Any topic could be approached at differing levels of difficulty. For children in the primary grades, ideas could be made concrete and deal with familiar experiences. Older children could explore concepts with more abstractedness and in greater depth and breadth. Suggested unit possibilities included:

- changes in children's literature books through the years
- history of reading instruction and textbooks
- reading instruction in other countries
- children's books written in English and another language

- literature from other countries (in translation)
- folktales--different versions from various countries
- foreign words in our English vocabulary
- history of our language; how it developed; families of language; origins of our alphabet; word etymologies
- human needs--food, clothing, shelter--around the world
- conflict resolution, getting along with others
- international signs and symbols
- discovering nature, caring for living things
- causes of and cures for pollution
- habitats and environments
- sports around the world--what, origins; history of the Olympics
- humankind: similarities and differences to other animals
- the process of creative problem solving
- play in different countries; in different eras of history
- nutrition and health

Students were encouraged to explore possible children's literature books available for whatever topic they choose, as well as brainstorm different interesting activities they could have children do which would involve reading and language arts in all content areas. When they had settled on their unit topic, they submitted a proposal to me stating what they planned to do, which global education strand(s) it addressed, and possible books and activities. I responded to these proposals, giving additional suggestions regarding sources and activities, as well as asking questions to direct their thoughts and efforts and perhaps help them limit their area of study to a manageable scope. With my approval, they began to fully develop their units.

The unit was to include the following information:

a. Unit focus. Grade level. Global education focus; why selected.
b. Outline of content children were expected to learn. Significant ideas/concepts; big ideas. Goals. Key vocabulary children are expected to learn through the unit.
c. Two graphic webs, showing the central unit theme, strands, and activities. One web was to show language arts areas and activities; the other, content areas and activities; some overlap was expected.
d. Summaries of all books and other resources to be used with and by children. How each related to the central global education strand. How each would be used.

e. How the unit would be introduced to children.
Use of K-W-L strategy; building motivation and interest.

f. Language use expectations for children.
Discussion questions to be used to guide thinking toward goals.
Variety of purposes; all levels of thinking.
Reading experiences (teacher to children; children for selves; variety of sources and purposes).
Writing experiences: variety of types and purposes; how shared.
Other related activities.

g. Learning center for related work to be done independently.

h. Culmination of unit: pulling all learning together; sharing.

i. Assessment of children's learning and accomplishment of goals.

j. Daily lesson plans for the unit, incorporating all of `the above.
Objectives: behavioral, affective.
Materials: variety of types, purposes.
Activities described completely.
Variety. Meaningful, interesting to children. Language arts and content areas. Independent; in collaboration with others.
Teacher-directed; self-directed.

A unit example will demonstrate the degree to which these undergraduate students understood the importance of global education and could plan a literature-based unit for teaching such concepts. The unit was titled "Responsibility," involving global ideas of human resources, values, and culture. The introduction stated that everyone makes a difference. We are responsible for ourselves, our community, our world neighbors, and our earth. The unit was divided into sections according to these different levels of responsibility. The teacher began the unit by having children brainstorm the meaning of responsibility and making a semantic web. Roles and responsibilities of family members were explored. A study of budgets helped children to learn the value of money. For classroom responsibility, the children brainstormed rules for proper conduct in the classroom and in school, and did skits to demonstrate these. Classroom helpers showed responsibility for various tasks. A book was read about what makes a good friend. Another book discussed the importance of being a good listener. Children discussed different ways to listen. Reading "The Ugly Duckling" stimulated discussion of accepting people whom are different, and how to make a new student feel welcome; a buddy system was developed. They played a game where each student wrote on a card something about themselves, and other students tried to guess who was being described. They discussed why not all people get along. The three branches of government were researched, and a classroom government was set up to deal with problems. Cubing was used to explore the word "vote." Children did school surveys about how children would react in certain situations. A walk around the community helped children to become familiar with responsibilities various people have and how a community functions. A mural was developed to show what they learned. Conflict resolution in their own lives was studied, helping them to see how they could better solve problems with others. Resolution strategies used by other countries were discussed, and applied to playground situations. Children developed a "peace commercial," giving reasons we need peace, and made it into a videotape. They wrote a business letter and submitted the commercial for broadcast by a local TV station. They discussed and made posters about their responsibility for natural resources, including water conservation, pollution, and recycling. They adopted a block to keep it clean.

Our world will be a better place if teachers are able to provide learning experiences for children about various global issues. These future teachers learned how to address a meaningful topic of study while involving literature, oral language, listening, reading, writing, drama, as well as the subject areas such as social studies, science, art, music, etc. Such learning opportunities are guaranteed to be more exciting and meaningful, with long-lasting memories, than more structured fragmented contrived lessons.

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Reading the Professional Literature: Guiding Education Students to Develop the Habit of Reading Professional Journals

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An ideal time for teachers and teachers-to-be to learn the value of professional journals and establish the habit of reading professional literature is during their education courses. Although teacher educators may present their students with the best current theory and practice, only continuing professional growth can keep them abreast of the best in their field after they leave our classes. Regie Routman, a vigorous advocate of regular reading of the educational literature, advises teachers to "continue to do professional reading to stay vibrant as a professional" (Routman, 1991, p. 496).

If teachers come to understand, enjoy and value professional journals while they are students, they are more likely to subscribe to journals and become active in professional organizations, and thus add to their own career satisfaction and teaching effectiveness. Yet investigation of current practice (e.g., Stout, 1989), indicates that there tends to be little or no encouragement to read professional education journals in teacher education programs.

Given the desirability of introducing preservice and practicing teachers to read the professional literature, how is this to be accomplished? It is useful to consider "building professional knowledge" as one of several strands to be emphasized within an education course. Then both course assignments and class activities can be used to acquaint students with professional literature, to enable them to read professional journals with interest and understanding, and to develop the desire to continue professional reading as a means of professional growth.

Class activities

The class activities suggested below serve a double purpose in education courses: not only do they help to develop students' knowledge, but they give students experience with practical teaching activities which they can adapt for their own classrooms. Of the activities listed, only the text hunt requires extensive preparation time on the teacher's part.

- **Structured Sustained Silent Reading.** Based on Sustained Silent Reading, SSSR differs from SSR in that all reading material relates to the general topic of study, and is kept in a classroom collection. In education courses, approximately 20 minutes of class time, weekly, can be devoted to SSSR. Students and professor read for approximately 10 minutes, followed by a period during which students share ideas from their reading which the professor may expand upon. A practical method of organizing the sharing of ideas is to keep a set of name cards, one for each student, and hand out three or four cards to signal the end of SSSR time. Students who receive a card talk briefly about what they've read, and note the title of the article on their card, thus providing a record of those who have had the opportunity to share ideas.

- **Structured Semi-silent Sustained Writing.** This activity matches well with SSSR. Biweekly or monthly, short periods of class time may be allotted to sustained writing, in draft form, about a topic related to the professional literature. In SSsSW the professor sets a topic (the Structure component), and students first confer to share ideas about the topic and then write individually (the Semi-silent and Writing components — sharing followed by independent writing). Just as the teacher is also a reader in SSSR, here both teacher and students are writers. In order for the teacher, as well as the students, to have the task of writing about a subject on a few minutes notice, one or more students set a writing topic for the teacher. After both students and teacher write for approximately 10 minutes, papers may be traded and ideas shared through reading. An added benefit of the SSsSW process is that students see a professor's writing in draft form.

- **RESPONSE.** Working individually or in groups, students may be assigned to use the RESPONSE study strategy (Jacobson, 1989) as they read one or more professional articles. RESPONSE requires students to take notes as they read, placing the notes in three categories: important points from their reading, questions inspired by the reading, and new terms and concepts which are introduced. The teacher then responds to students' questions and ideas either in writing or through lecture and discussion. Using RESPONSE is particularly helpful in enabling students to find out about the aspects of professional journal reading which are unfamiliar and puzzling to them. The strategy has the added advantage of encouraging students to raise questions about their reading.

- **Text hunt.** A text hunt is a teacher-prepared activity designed to acquaint students with important features of a new text in an interesting and challenging way, when the text is introduced. A text hunt prepared over one or more professional journals can acquaint students with journal characteristics, such as the different journal features, placement of references, and provision of author information.

- **Think-aloud.** The teacher may use the think-aloud strategy (Davey, 1983) to talk through a significant passage in a journal article, reading brief portions of the passage and discussing them briefly before reading further. This kind of commentary can help students understand the meaning, and the correct pronunciation, of technical terminology.

Course assignments

Assignments given to students can extend their knowledge of professional literature, and can also provide a basis of readings to be used in the class activities described above.

- **Reading assignments.** Textbooks can be supplemented by assigned readings from professional journals, or one or more professional journals can be used as course texts. Alternatively, copies of selected journal articles can be placed on library reserve. (Note: The use of journals as course texts is feasible; I have used IRA publications — which our college bookstore stocked at my request — and issues of *Reading Horizons* in my courses.)

- **SSSR article.** Each student can be assigned to supply a recent article for in-class Structured Sustained Silent Reading. This assignment requires students to understand the difference between professional journals and teacher magazines as well as the distinction within professional journals between articles and columns. Students must also accept the importance of copying an entire article including all its references. The assignment, though brief and easily accomplished, helps to familiarize students with the library stacks and the library's collection of journals. Since these articles are not returned to the student, this is a practical way of keeping a class collection of articles up to date.

- **Articles to make up an absence.** A class policy may be established which enables students to make up one absence without penalty by contributing three recent articles from professional journals, highlighted and accompanied by a brief written summary. These articles also can be added to the class collection.

- **Professional article collection.** Each student can be given a longterm course assignment to identify one or more topics of personal professional interest and begin a professional article collection by copying 7-8 relevant articles from professional journals and writing brief summaries. The assignment is practical for students and does not require excessive time for evaluation on the professor's part. The assignment may be varied by making the professional article collection the basis for a short paper, or by assigning cooperative groups to make a presentation on a professional issue, based on their readings.

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Global Literature in the Integrated Curriculum: Opportunities in Teacher Education

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Emphasis on integrated curriculum and holistic goals gives us many opportunities to bring global literature into the teacher education program. More than opportunities, these coordinations truly are responsibilities that we should fulfill for our students, most of whom will be teaching well into the next century. As good fortune would have it, these opportunities present themselves at the very time when children's literature from throughout the world is gaining wider recognition, distribution, and accessibility. In this paper, a few values of global literature are described and suggestions for global literature identification, reviews, and themes are presented.

Values of Global Literature

Literary works from other countries bring a reality and perspective that differs from that of a book "written about" peoples and cultures by authors who may have very cursory knowledge about topics and settings. Dangers of stereotyping, bias, and partial coverage are a few of the negatives that often characterize works written about other peoples, especially in literature written for children. Two examples of qualities interwoven with the national culture will be cited.

Love of gardens and respect for the natural world come through loud and clear in some of the works by British authors. Tom's Midnight Garden (Philippa Pearce) and Watership Down (Richard Adams) are noteworthy examples that convey this richness of the British culture. The magical, vibrant fantasy found in the literature of Australia enhances Playing Beatie Bow (Ruth Park) and A Little Fear (Patricia Wrightson), both written in a way that evokes the strangely fearful.

Knowledge about other countries is conveyed by books with settings that cross time and space. Few writers match Rosemany Sutcliff's artistry in her tales of Roman Britain and other early periods. The Lantern Bearers, for example, captures, through the eyes of the young Aquila, the sadness and finality of the legions' departure from Britain and the hope and brightness foretold by their many contributions that remained. Apple orchards, literacy, and society governed by written rules are only a few of the benefits that young readers appreciate. It is hard to imagine that a person who has not "lived" the British experience could match Sutcliff's slendid writings.

Identifying Global Literature

Selecting outstanding children's literature from throughout the world may seem a daunting task; however, a practical starting point can be identified by awards presented by professional associations and government agencies in other countries. Extensive listings and descriptions of these awards appear in publications by the Children's Book Council, and a good reference library will have other materials detailing these awards. In teacher education courses, for example, students will benefit from the following: 1) introduction to some of these awards as analogous to the Newbery and Caldecott Awards; 2) analysis of the source materials and the review resources; and 3) critique of some of the books on each list for curriculum integration possibilities.

Useful in our courses would be award-winning books recognized for excellence in their countries of original publication or for their translation into English. For example, awards presented in Australia, Canada, New Zealand, and the United Kingdom for outstanding children's books include (Australian) Book of the Year Award, (Canadian) Book of the Year for Children, The Esther Glen Award, and the Carnegie Award, respectively. Over the years, award criteria have changed, but these recipients have tended to be appropriate for able readers at the intermediate grade level and above. However, Australia has multiple awards for different age levels, and, in each country, awards are also given for excellence in illustrations.

Of special interest are two awards that are truly international in scope. The Mildred Batchelder Award is given to a children's book originally published in a language other than English and then translated and published in the U S. German and Scandinavian languages have been the most frequent original languages of these recipients, and they represent some of the very best perspectives within global children's literature. (One of my personal favorites is Crutches by Peter Hartling.) The Hans Christian Andersen Medal, unlike other awards mentioned, is given for a collective body of work. National nominees are judged by an international committee and recipients have been writers or illustrators.

Reviews of Global Literature

Reviews and articles valuable in judging global literature are found in many sources. Addresses for some of the resources mentioned in this section will be found at the paper's conclusion. Horn Book, for example, is well known to those who share an interest in children's books. This journal has articles and reviews; additionally, it has a newsy section where current award recipients are announced. Dragon Lode, despite its small size and infrequent publication, contains wonderful informational nuggets on global literature that may not appear in other sources.

International announcements and articles appear in Bookbird. This work and IBBY Newsletter are the outstanding publications for those whose main interest is global literature. The tone, coverage, and topics found in these sources reveal the editors' diligence and dedication toward promoting world understanding through children's books. Articles also appear in The New Advocate and in Children's Literature in Education. Insightful writings about authors and individual works evidence these journals' strong scholarship.

Only two sources are noted that have to be ordered from outside the U S. These are Magpies and Papers, each published in Australia, but very different in content. The former includes short articles, ads, lists, and announcements about children's literature, while the latter contains longer, scholarly articles.

These are just a small sample of the resources we can use to learn more about outstanding examples of children's books published throughout the world.

Themes

Integrated curriculum themes using global literature are limited only by one's imagination. Appreciation of biodiversity, for example, can richly develop from works that take place in varied locations. Comparisons of the world's landscapes, flora, and fauna result from works with settings in diverse countries. Even a topic as simple or as complex as weather can be illustrated through global literature. A personal puzzle was solved, for example, when I finally realized, while reading Tiger in the Bush (Nan Chauncey), "Oh, yes; they have summer holidays in January because Tasmania is below the equator."

Families can be studied for similarities and differences. Themes of separation, independence, and interdependency can be found throughout family stories. Some works previously mentioned, specifically Crutches and The Lantern Bearers, depict the similar pain that separation and war create in 1940s Europe and in 400s Britain. Each work supports curriculum topics that promote rationales for peace and understanding. Understanding of the need for independence in the aged is gained in A Little Fear.

Themes of peace and acceptance are most appropriate curriculum topics at this time. Eastern Europe strives to establish national and ethnic identities; in our own country cultural diversity increasingly characterizes schools and communities. Global literature can reveal a new world of the human experience for our future teachers; their future students will be enlightened for both literature and for the world as it evolves during their lives.

NOTE: Cited children's books are recipients of major awards and, with the exception of Tiger in the Bush, may be ordered through large bookstores.

Magpies and Papers	10 Armagh Street Victoria Park, Western Australia 6100
The New Advocate	Christopher-Gordon Pub. Inc 480 Washington St. Norwood, MA 02062
Children's Literature in Education	Human Sciences Press, Inc. 233 Spring St. New York, N Y 10013-1578
Bookbird	EBSCO P.O. Box 1943 Birmingham, AL 35201
Dragon Lode	requires membership in IRA SIG, Children's Literature
IBBY Newsletter	International Board on Books for Young People, requires membership in United States BBY. Contact: Alida von Krogh Cutts IRA, 800 Barksdale Rd, PO Box 8139 Newark, DE 19714-8139, USA

MYTHOLOGY:

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Potential and Promise for World Understanding

Multiculturalism exists throughout the world wherever countries contain regions with different language and cultural heritages as well as when countries with different languages and cultures share borders. Everywhere children are taught, they are taught in a world teaming with diversity. The challenge that schools face is the development of educational programs that foster the potential for understanding in a world of multiculturalism. Schools, especially in North America have only recently appreciated the contributions that diverse cultures and languages bring to the larger society. As recent as 1992, recognition of the cultural contributions of the Native Americans was mandated in the curriculum by the Department of Public Instruction in the state of Wisconsin.

There are many ways to accomplish understanding and appreciation of the local diversity that exists in the lives of the school children in their town or city that also extends to the world at large. Recent research efforts by experts in the social sciences encourage curricular programs that support this endeavor. Since the 1970s, the field of children's literature has made a grand contribution through books of every genre that speak to the beauty and wealth of cultural diversity around the world.

Mythology is a singular genre of literature that is rich with potential to foster in children, world understanding and an appreciation of multicultural life experiences. The universal themes of myth from every culture guide us into the material realities which we inherit from our ancestors.

The very themes of western mythology, familiar to most of us, i.e. creation of the world, human experiences, celestial bodies, explanations of nature as divine, heroes, tricksters, and heroic adventures are common topics of myths from every culture. It follows then that myths are universal and comprise a sizable part of all of our heritage with well defined characters, heroic actions, challenging situations and deep emotions.

Within the scope of sophisticated scientific thought that dominates our post modern world, there has been a renascence of mythology for children, drawing on the many themes of myth from countries everywhere. The available trade books now include myths far beyond the western world. They are beautifully illustrated, well told tales by distinguished artists and authors that depict the historic values and pride of the culture.

We are well aware of how our every day conversations are colored with mythical descriptions, snippets from the "why stories", romantic tales, and the heroic events that inspire modern advertising. The myths from every culture provide stories and the universe of people in song and art. Our daily conversations are colored with words and phrases taken from well known myths. Our cities and towns have been named for heroic characters and mythical events. In this post modern era, myths still have the power to permeate our language and give meaning to our behaviors.

Myths offer the reader magic, beauty and vibrant, life giving visual images. These images expand one's personal experiences and transmit ancient values. Myth provides a landscape of allusion and knowledge of ancestral cultures (Jane Yolen, 1981).

All of us have a need for a mystic participation in the earth (Jung, 1985). We need a way to explore and explain the universe of experiences which carries us into the grand scheme of adult experience. Myths enable us to feel the relationship to the universe and bring us into harmony with the world and life source.

Children easily learn about the evolution of the human race in their search for the truth and meaning of life. Mythology holds a natural appeal for children and they can accept and understand the stories at their own level of experience. Mythology enables the child to join in the story and exercise the imagination and intellect to relate to the events and forces of life he longs to understand (Piaget, 1929). Like the ancients, the child wants to explain the sky and earth and human behavior within the framework of something greater but like themselves. The myth always ancient, ever new, strikes an emotional force found nowhere else in literature.

We need only to read and share in the sacred stories of the Native Americans, or the Aboriginals of Australia or Polynesian mythology of the Pacific to realize the importance of our identity with natural phenomena. After reading these tales, it would not be too much to expect that the myth is still the secret door through which the infinite energies of the cosmos enter our lives.

Joseph Campbell says it best: "Religions, philosophies, arts, the social forms of primitive and historic man (woman) prime discoveries in science and technology, the very dreams that blister steep, boil up from the magic ring of myth."

Teachers need to continue the magic ring of the myth. Our educational role is two fold. First we are the myth makers, the story tellers who breath new life into the heroes and adventures of the past. Secondly, we are the keepers of the truth and collectors of timeless experiences from every corner of the world. As myth tellers we help children focus on the truth in the midst of people's history. This provides us all with an existential and ontological orientation.

Myths are more than good stories that command the attention. Myths as a story form, are perfect for the young reader. The stories are usually short and can be enjoyed one at a time. They contain high adventure, humor, suspense, and basic conflict, all the elements of a good story.

The rich language and strong characterization helps the reader enter easily into another culture. The prose and poetry of the myth illustrate the universality of the wishes, dreams and problems of people around the world. Yeats, Grimm, and Colum strongly believed that the myths and legends of their country point to their nations specific characteristic and conscious recognition of that is genuinely valuable within the national heritage enabling the society to function and flourish effectively.

Mythology is not only a medium that helps children understand and control their world but like the Greeks, children can use their knowledge of the myths to unify their society, provide constructive, optimistic resolutions and develop and maintain societal health. Like the Greeks, we as teachers can use mythology to simultaneously entertain and educate our children.

Retelling myths from all over the world allows us to embark on a literary journey that carries us to new frontiers of mutual understanding and respect. I suggest we collect myths from various cultures that:

1. reveals literature, art, and music
2. searches into our heritage and roots
3. explains what it is that inspires post-modern society
4. provides a cohesion framework for reading multicultural literature
5. unifies the cosmos
6. provides a sense of history
7. furnishes one with a sense of identity
8. articulates one's place in society
9. fosters pride as a member of the universe
10. reveals the intrinsic power to form and interpret patterns of existence
11. enables diverse people to use myths as a means of understanding and communication through receptive and expressive language
12. connects the world by the universality of myth making
13. employs myth to lead from knowledge to dreams and beyond perceptions
14. fosters the power to exercise historical imagination

15. expands our vision to the revelations of cultures of other societies
16. help us to examine the society that produced it
17. gives us a glimpse into prevailing social concepts and conditions

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Using Children's Books To Teach Global Values In Teacher Education

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Values are based on our standard of what we believe is worthwhile. They are expressed in our actions, behaviors and conversations. There has been a resurgent interest in incorporating values instruction in school curriculum. The Georgia State Department of Education, after an indepth study, selected eight values to be taught in the schools of Georgia. The values are: 1) democracy - respect for and acceptance of authority; 2) patriotism - courage, loyalty to a person, custom or idea; 3) respect for natural environment - care for and conservation of land, trees, clean air, pure water and living inhabitants; 4) altruism - concern for and motivation to act for the welfare of others; 5) integrity - virtue and uprightness of character including honesty, truth and trustworthiness; 6) accountability - being responsible for one's actions and consequences; 7) self-esteem - pride and belief in oneself and 8) work ethic - the idea that work is good and helps develop cooperation, dependability, reliability, perseverance, pride, dignity, self-respect, productivity, and creativity.

Although values may seem to differ from culture to culture, it was hypothesized that there were similar values held by various cultures all over the world, values identified as global values. Teachers the world over should be cognizant of these global values and make efforts to teach them.

To determine if the values identified by the Georgia State Department of Education were indeed global values, an action research project was carried out. Individuals (students, visitors and USA residents) from ten different countries, on the continents of Asia, Africa, South America and Europe, were interviewed and asked to identify the values selected from the Georgia State Department of Education, that were held or accepted in their country of origin. At least five of the Georgia values were selected by individuals interviewed from the different countries.

The next step in the action research project was to examine children's books to determine if they incorporated these identified global values. In support of using children's books to teach global values, Rubin (1990) indicated that good books can open doors through which can pass better understanding, mutual respect and trust and hope of living together in harmony and peace. Norton (1989) also believed that stories can be used to teach values and she stated that students can gain insight into values and should analyze possible values across cultures. She further pointed out that students should be encouraged to understand that similar values frequently underlie different customs.

Undergraduate students enrolled in reading and children's literature classes for the 1991-92 school year at two Georgia colleges read many children's books. They identified those books they felt portrayed the global values identified through the interviews. After books were read, identified and classified as embodying one of the eight global values, five strategies were identified for teaching values to children.

The first strategy selected was discussion with questions. To be effective, discussion should progress through the three stages described by Stewig (1988): 1) the exploration stage; 2) the comparison stage and 3) the reflection stage. Stewig indicated that these stages help students think about the values expressed in literature.

The second strategy selected was keeping a reading log. In addition to writing about the characters in a book, students also identified and described any of the global values found in the book.

Two additional strategies described by Yopp and Yopp (1992) were selected for teaching global values - character maps and book charts. A character map helps students recognize the traits of characters in a book and the relationship between the characters. Book charts help students recognize the universality of specific themes. When making book charts, students compare and contrast experiences of characters and responses to those experiences, analyze similarities and differences in plots and examine author's strategies for developing common themes.

A final strategy selected as appropriate was recording reactions on feelings webs as described by Bromley (1991). Arrows in a web denote how one character feels toward another character.

Following are some of the many children's books that were identified as ones containing global values:

Value: Democracy:
- Hawk, I'm your brother by B. Baylor. 1976. Scribner's Son.
- How many days to America? by E. Bunting. 1988. Ticknor & Fields.
- Jump ship to freedom by J. Collier & C. Collier. 1981. Delacourte Press.
- Roll of thunder, hear my cry by M.D. Taylor. 1976. Dial.

Value: Patriotism:
- The two of them by Aliki. 1979. Greenwillow.
- Lotte's lockett by V. Sorenson. 1964. Harcourt Brace.

Value: Respect for natural environment
- The legend of the bluebonnet by T. dePaola. 1983. Putnam & Sons.
- Home in the sky by J. Baker, 1984. Greenwillow.
- Thy friend, Obadiah by B. Turkle. 1972. Penguin, USA.
- The biggest bear by L. Ward. 1973. Sandpiper.

Value: Altruism
- Queenie Peavy by R. Burch. 1966. Viking.
- In my mother's house by A.N. Clark. 1951. Viking.
- Thee, Hannah by M. De Angeli. 1940. Doubleday.
- The perfect crane by A. Laurin. 1981. Harper & Row.

Value: Integrity
- The bad times of Irma Baumlein by C.R. Brink. 1972. Macmillan.
- The courage of Sarah Noble by A. Dalgliesh. 1954. Scribner's.
- Jamica's find by J. Havill. 1987. Sandpipers.
- Salt boy by M. Perrine. 1968. Houghton Mifflin.

Value: Accountability
Year walk by A.N. Clark. 1975. Viking Press.
Angus and the cat by M. Flack. 1989. Doubleday.

Value: Self-Esteem
Then again, maybe I won't by J. Blume. 1971. Bradbury.
I like me by N. Carlson. 1988. Penguin, USA.
A girl called Al by G. Greene. 1969. Viking.
Keeping it secret by P. Pollock. 1982. Putnam.

Value: Work Ethic
A weed is a flower by Aliki. 1988. Simon & Schuster.
Black pilgrimage by T. Feelings. 1972. Lothrop, Lee & Shepard.
Frederick by L. Lionni. 1967. Pantheon.
The little engine that could by W. Piper. 1954. Platt & Munch.

Reading children's books, identifying global values in the books and selecting appropriate strategies for teaching the values in an attempt to help students understand that, even though people throughout the world are different, they are also alike, particularly in the values they hold appears to be a worthwhile activity for teachers worldwide.

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